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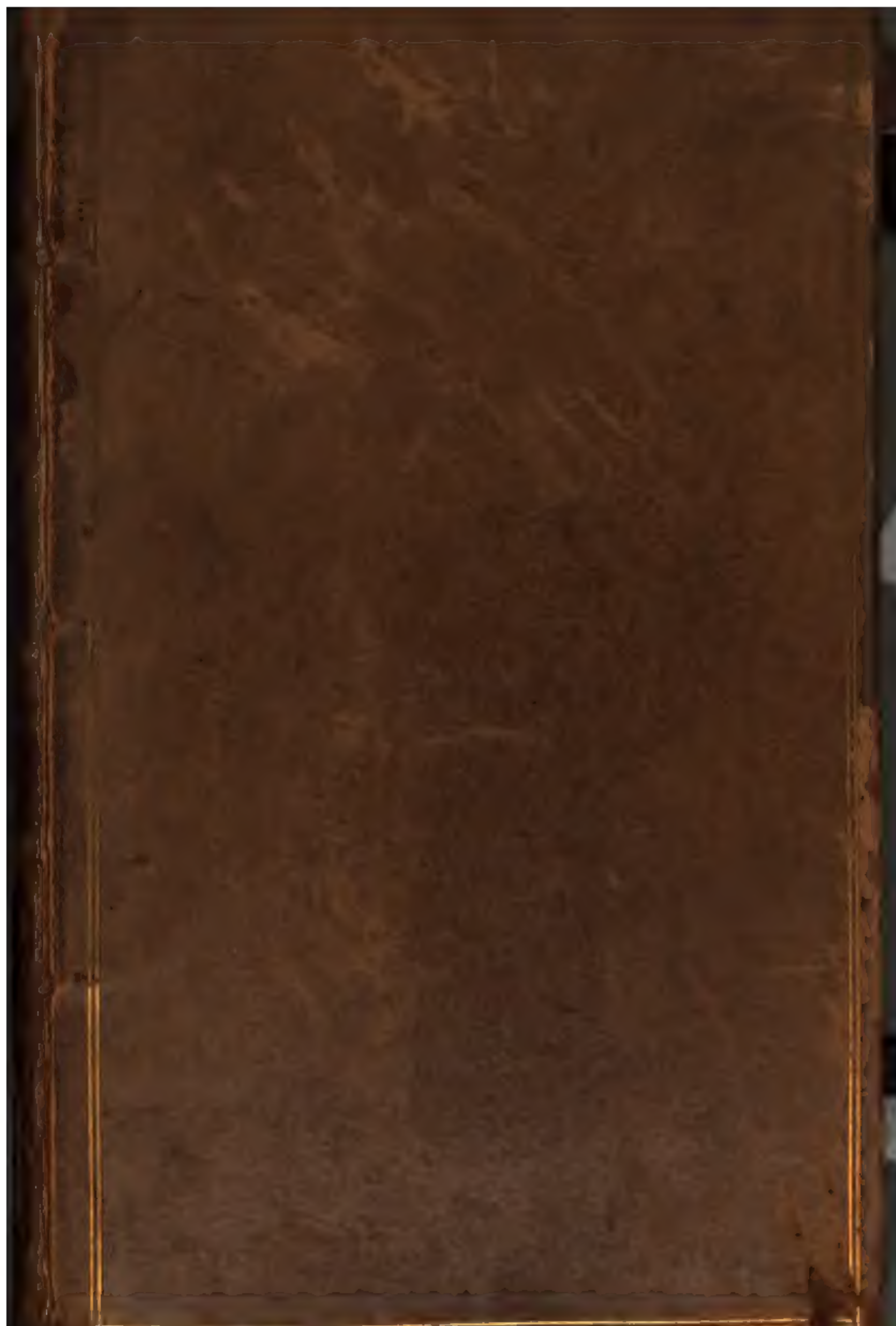
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N. B. FOR REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXVII.

Page 17. l. 8. put only a colon after 'enforced.'
20. l. 1. for 'however,' r. <i>who were the.</i>
135. l. 11. from bott. for 'wreathe,' r. <i>wreath.</i>
136. l. 21. put a turned comma after 'sown.'
485. l. 13. for 'tabular,' r. <i>tubular.</i>

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For M A Y, 1815.

ART. I. *Archeologia*: or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. XVII. 4to. pp. 354. 2l. 5s. sewed. White and Co. 1814.

THOUGH a few persons, more fond of a joke than of a fact, may speak tauntingly of the Society of Antiquaries, that learned body can boast of many individuals of great diligence and research, who contribute by their labours to illustrate the history, literature, customs, and arts of their country. For our part, we are decidedly of opinion that these associated gentlemen occupy a very respectable station, and maintain a character by their publications which is alike honourable to themselves and the community to which they belong. Their accurate and truly splendid accounts of our most magnificent Gothic cathedrals are, we believe, unrivalled; their collections intitled *Monumenta Vetusta* include a rich treasure of antiquities; and their Transactions, or Volumes of the *Archæologia*, present us with many tracts which the scholar will not only peruse with pleasure, but will wish to possess for future consultation. That which is now before us contains several valuable papers, which we shall proceed to notice according to their extent and importance.

The first communication consists of *Observations on the Origin of Gothic Architecture, with an Appendix*, by George Saunders, Esq. F.R.S. and F.A.S.; the object of which is to explain in what way the *pointed arch* was gradually developed, and acquired its magic effect in the vaultings of our principal cathedrals. Various opinions, as the writer remarks at the end of his letter, have been advanced on this hitherto unsettled question. Some persons have thought that we derived it either from the Saracens or from the Moors; others, that the idea was suggested by groves or rather avenues of trees; others, that it resulted from the antient mode of building with timber, "*more Teutonico*," or was deduced from a model of wood, in which the fabric is sustained by an assemblage of poles bent towards each other, and thus forming pointed top-arches where they meet and are connected together, the accidental swellings of the bark and buds supplying hints for the decorative parts: more,

however, are inclined to trace this feature of Gothic Architecture to interlaced circular arches; while ‘the ornamented pinnacles and other decorations, found in some Italian buildings of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, have been adduced as early examples of Gothic works.’ None of these conjectures appear to be satisfactory; nor, as Mr. Saunders remarks, are they reconcileable to the gradation observed in the growth of that species of work in stone. According to this inquirer, Gothic vaulting progressed gradually to its perfect state, arising out of circumstances which were not originally in the contemplation of the very architects who were employed in the structure of our finest cathedrals and collegiate churches. To establish this matter, he has recourse to facts, and marks the successive changes which vaulting has undergone in this country from the time of the Saxons to the complete establishment of the pointed form. Four classes of Groined Arches are exhibited in the accompanying plates; and the progression of art from one class to the other is very neatly explained. As a preliminary, however, to this discussion, Mr. S. wishes to have it understood that ‘the appellation of *Gothic* is here restricted to that kind of building, in which the covering of a void space is composed of two similar curves meeting together, and forming an angle at the top, usually termed a *Pointed Arch*.’

The tops of apertures formed by inclined stones, instances of which occur over the entrance into the great Pyramid, and in other very antient works, if they bear some resemblance to the object before us, are yet, in their structure, quite dissimilar; and though in old times convenience or accident occasioned the appearance of an arch worked to a point, we must still, as Mr. S. says, ‘look for some strongly operating cause for its establishment on a regular system, during the period in which Gothic architecture flourished.’

Assuming it as a *datum* that the same principle prevails in Gothic and in Grecian architecture, and that the form of covering the void spaces between the walls of a building ultimately regulates that of the openings in the walls beneath it, the system of *vaulting* becomes the prominent and governing object of investigation. Here Mr. S. displays great skill and knowledge as an architect; and if, from the want of documents transmitted to us by Gothic builders, the result be not so complete as we could wish, it seems “so like truth, that it may serve our turn as well.” *

The Saxons and the early Normans, imitating the Romans, introduced the circular arch into their vaulting; and in their

* Cowley.

cross-vaulting the intersections on the diagonal lines produced angles or groins, as they are technically termed: but the groined arches of those times were small; and the vaulting or shell, being constructed of rubble-work, was too feeble to be executed on a large scale. When, therefore, vaults of larger dimensions than those which are found in crypts were employed for the covering of our churches, some expedients became necessary for fortifying the weak parts. For this purpose, to the arched ribs in the transverse direction of the vaulting, the architect added diagonal ribs under the intersections of the cross-vaulting; which, while they afforded strength to the superincumbent shell, became a matter of ornament; being wrought in stone formed into mouldings, and sometimes enriched with carving. Thus groined arches of the second class were formed; and, says Mr. S.,

‘ The means pursued in the construction of vaulting at this period are particularly interesting, as they conducted to that change which has been the object of so much inquiry. The builders do not seem to have been aware that, in the projection of the curves, if the diagonal ribs were circular, those at the sides should be elliptical, to coincide with each other; and on the contrary, that if the side ribs were circular, the diagonal ribs should be elliptical.

‘ We meet with the second class of vaulting mostly in the ailes of cathedrals and large churches, built, or altered, during great part of the twelfth century. The bays * of vaulting were generally longest on that side which was in the direction of the ailes; the long side having at first an arch which was a semicircle; and the shorter side, which crossed the aile, being in like manner terminated at the top, but having the horns of the semicircle continued downwards in perpendicular lines to the same level base with the others. It was probably soon observed, that when the sides of a bay were nearly of equal length, the arch of the diagonal rib obtained but a small height in proportion to its subtense, and was consequently weak where strength was chiefly wanted. More elevation was procured by raising all the side arches; and sometimes, instead of continuing the horns of the transverse arches downwards in perpendicular lines, the curve exceeded the half of a circle, forming what is called the horse-shoe arch. With all these expedients they could not however make the several parts to conform to each other; and the sofit of the vaulting is seen to be connected to the ribs in many distorted shapes. Almost every specimen in this stage of their works evinces a struggle to accomplish the twofold object of applying semicircular diagonal ribs for greater strength; and of combining three arches of equal height, but of different subtenses, in one bay of vaulting, in a

* A bay is the quadrangular space over which a pair of diagonal ribs extend, that rest on the four angles. The same term is also used for the horizontal space comprized between two principal beams.’

manner that might produce a regularity in the workmanship. Not being able to effect this with circular topped arches, recourse was had to an expedient, simple in itself, but which led to the production of those extraordinary works, which are not less the admiration than the astonishment of the present age.'

Perplexed by circular arches of different subtenses, in the same bay, and struck with the unseemly appearance of bringing down the horns of the smaller arches, the artist devised the expedient of *dividing the semicircle that extended over the longer side into two portions, one of which was placed over the narrower side, and, being raised to the same height as the arch over the longest, formed the pointed top where they met.* This contrivance was eagerly adopted, on its discovery, because it removed many difficulties, and to the shell of the vaulting gave regularity in the adjustment of its parts. As the whole of the inquiry turns on this point, the author adduces in a long note all the historical evidence which the case affords to establish his position; particularly in the account which Gervase has transmitted relative to the building or rather improvement of Canterbury Cathedral, by William of Sens (*Senonensis*), in the twelfth century :

'The first work executed by William of Sens, in the ailes, exhibits no knowledge of the pointed arch vaulting ; for where a pointed arch occurs in the transverse ribs, it was evidently done to preserve an equal height with corresponding ribs over a larger extent, which have rounded tops : and for the same reason the pointed arches were placed over the intervals between the columns dividing the ailes from the choir, the sides of the bays being here narrowest in the direction of the ailes. The cause of adopting the pointed arch in this case is obvious. Gervase acquaints us with the difficulty the architect had to get his employers to consent to the old stone-work being taken down, for making the interior of new work : and the exterior walls and crypt being maintained, he mentions how ingeniously the architect accommodated the forms of the new work to the irregularities caused by the old building. The architect's ingenuity was here exerted to produce a work of a tolerably good appearance in the arches which were to pass over the unequal spaces : this he managed by pointed arches over the narrower intervals to correspond in height with the round topped arches over wider intervals ; no other preference appears for pointed arches in the lower openings, for in all the wider spaces, round topped arches are employed.

'The expedient resorted to for the arches at the sides, being much more wanted for surmounting the difficulties in the old manner of vaulting ; and those means not being applied to the vaulting of the ailes, which was so immediately connected with the side arches, plainly shew that pointed arch vaulting was not then in contemplation. It is however scarcely possible to examine the work attentively, without supposing that, from these initial operations, the architect conceived the great use to which pointed arches might be applied in vaulting ; and, as the work advanced, projected the bold design of executing, with their help, the large vaulting over the choir.

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‘ The vaulting executed by William of Sens over the choir carries with it evidence of a novel attempt in that kind of work. Although all the transverse ribs are point arched, and the diagonal ribs of the first bay (being the narrow one next the great tower) are in the same form, yet the shell of the vaulting, both in this and in the next bay, is round arched against the side walls. The second bay being divided by a transverse rib across the middle, makes it difficult to imagine how the architect could avoid adopting the pointed, instead of the round topped form, against the side walls : but by the time the work advanced to the third bay from the great tower, pointed arch vaulting begins to appear against the side walls ; and in the bay where the east transept crosses the choir, which was the last work of William of Sens, a complete conception of pointed arch vaulting was attained, this being, both in the shell of the vaulting and in the ribs, point arched on every side, with round topped diagonal ribs. But what proves that the large vaulting over the choir was not designed at the commencement of this work is, that the thin columns placed against the side walls of the choir for supporting the ribs of the upper vaulting, rest upon the capitals of the columns which divide the choir from the aisles, and overhang them in an awkward manner, instead of resting on the floor of the choir, as they would undoubtedly have done, had they formed a part in the original plan. It is also deserving of attention, that Gervase describes (not until the third year of the work, and therefore not until the architect had had the opportunity of perceiving what was wanted for pointed arch vaulting,) that William of Sens added small columns to the four pillars under the great bay of vaulting where the transept crosses the choir : these small columns rising from the floor of the choir, give to the four piers that appearance of continuing the branching lines of the vaulting down to the base of the building, which was afterwards practised with so much beautiful effect in Gothic works. A progressive improvement is observed in the work which succeeded that done by William of Sens, as it advanced eastward, so far as an attention to uniformity would permit : but to the end of the large vaulting, the marks of little experience in this kind of work may be observed.

‘ The account of these proceedings at Canterbury Cathedral is very interesting in the history of Gothic Architecture. After the fire, architects, both French and English, were brought together to be consulted ; and a foreigner, engaged to superintend the works, is characterized by Gervase as a very superior man. William of Sens, the person selected for his skill and knowledge, must be supposed to have been acquainted with the practice of his country ; but the commencement of his operations at Canterbury Cathedral does not make it appear that he brought from France any knowledge of the pointed arch vaulting. A number of architects from various parts being assembled together at the consultation before the works were begun, if such a practice had been known any where, it is but reasonable to conclude, that here it would have been explained and adopted in the first operations. Gervase certainly speaks of the large pointed arch vaulting, which was executed two years after the commencement of the works, as an extraordinary production.’

After the discovery evinced in this third class of groined arches, the subsequent improvements easily presented themselves. The ribs were now put up before the shell; and, to give strength to the transverse ribs, a stone band was added beneath the ridge, for the purpose of connecting the several ribs together, and facilitating the introduction of intermediate ribs between those in the diagonal and the transverse positions. By this contrivance, that fourth class of groined arches was executed which appeared towards the end of the thirteenth century, and by which the system of vaulting obtained a high degree of perfection. ‘The rib-work of the fourth class of vaulting easily led the way to all the playful variety, seen not only in the tracery of the arched ceilings, but also in every other part that had any relation to it.’ Lastly, Mr. Saunders adverts to the shape of the apertures, which, through every period, corresponded with the style of vaulting that was in fashion. Without copying all the remarks illustrative of this branch of the subject, it will be sufficient to insert the following passage :

‘In the primary establishment of the pointed arch vaulting in this country, the first essays towards a correspondent window consisted in combining several narrow ones together, which being separately pointed at the top, have obtained the name of lancet windows : the most successful instances are in the combination of three, the middle one being higher than the other two. This manner was not long practised before it was found that a pointed arch passing over the whole, and including along with the combined lancet windows, surmounted circles, variously disposed, and progressively changed to mullions spreading upwards into diversified ramifications, would better accord with the upper lines of the interior of the building : this association of lines being approved, the pointed arch became the established practice for terminating every opening, and constituted the system of what is called Gothic Architecture.’

Such is the information which this paper suggests, and we recommend it to the study of those who wish to obtain clear ideas of the Gothic style. Mr. Saunders is of opinion that the great difficulty which impeded those who constructed our venerable cathedrals was completely surmounted, as soon as the simple mode was devised of *applying segments of the same curve throughout a quadrangle, or bay of the ceiling* ; since by these means they constructed a concurrence of arches of different extent, but of the same height. We can imagine the architect who made this discovery exclaiming with the Greek philosopher, *Ευρίκα!!*

In consequence of the similarity of subject, we are induced to proceed next to *Observations on Vaults*, by Samuel Ware, Esq.
This

This paper occupies a larger space than that of Mr. Saunders, and is indeed of a more comprehensive nature. It is the evident result of much labour and inquiry, and furnishes a rich variety of historical details, which must be very acceptable to the scholar and the artist. After a sensible introduction, in which the author specifies and arranges under distinct heads the different forms of vaults, and after having partly subscribed to Mr. S.'s principle, by admitting that 'the changes, which have taken place at certain periods in the forms of vaults, will in some measure account for the alterations in the styles of architecture which have characterized different ages,' Mr. Ware proceeds in separate sections to exhibit various particulars illustrative of every branch of his subject. Vaults are thus classed: 1. Cylindrical; 2. Pyramidal; 3. Conical; 4. Domical; 5. Pendent; 6. Simple Groined; 7. Rib-groined, and 8. Pendent-ribbed. The mode of constructing each kind of vaulting is fully explained, towards which object the accompanying outline-sketches are of material use.

Of Cylindrical Vaults, the most extraordinary specimens will be found in bridges; and, in a very amusing and instructive note, Mr. Ware has furnished us with the length of the chord, or span, as we commonly term it, of the most remarkable ancient and modern bridges. That of the great arch of the bridge built by Augustus was 135 feet in length; that which was built by Trajan over the Tagus at Alcantara is 140 feet; that of Brioude over the river Allier, in the department of the Upper Loire, is 181 feet; that of the great arch of the *ponte del Castel Vecchio*, over the Adige at Verona, is 160 feet; and that of the arch of the Pont-y-ty-Prydd, built by the Welch mason Edwards, over the Taff, in Glamorganshire, is 140 feet, being the arc of a circle whose diameter would be 175 feet. To these statements, Mr. Ware adds:

'The vaults of ancient and modern construction are excelled beyond any comparison, by the extraordinary productions of Perronet the French architect. The form of the arches of the bridge of Neuilly, built by him, is a false ellipse. The upper part of the arch was formed of an arc of a circle 320 feet diameter. During the construction it sunk or flattened, so that it became an arc of a circle, whose diameter would be 518 feet; whence it is manifest that an arch might be built of stone 518 feet on the chord line; and the flying bridge of China, which the Jesuits state to be built over a river from one mountain to another, having one arch 500 cubits high and 400 cubits long, may exist. The size of the piers, which supported this extraordinary production of Perronet, is only 14 feet wide; the lateral pressure being wholly communicated to the abutments.'

Churches also have their cylindrical vaults; and those of the nave and transepts of St. Peter's at Rome are of this species: but Mr. Ware is not delighted with them, preferring the magic crossings of vaults and domes at St. Paul's, though even these are not entirely suited to his taste. He wishes that Torregiano, on his return to Italy, had instructed Michael Angelo in the principles of the vaulting of the contemporary chapel of King's College, Cambridge: but, in order to have adopted these principles of vaulting in St. Peter's, the exterior of that church must have been entirely changed, because similar vaulting with that of the celebrated Cambridge-chapel could not have been executed without most enormous buttresses; since, if the vast buttresses, which appear on the outside of King's College chapel, were necessary to resist the lateral pressure of a vault only 39 feet wide, how much greater would be requisite to uphold a vaulting constructed on the same principles 85 feet wide?

In the section on Groined Vaults, some curious historical matter is collected. The dimensions of the stupendous vaultings of the Temple of Peace, and of the great hall of the baths of Dioclesian, are given; (the former was 83 feet wide and 121 feet high; the latter 67 wide and 100 high;) and Mr. Ware informs us that we are indebted to the Free Masons for the vaults which secure our cathedrals; that it was their practice to reduce all the pressures in a building, whether vertical or lateral, to certain principal supports, whether of piers or columns; and that a wall was held by them to be merely an inclosure.

Of Domes, we have a long catalogue, and the author solicits assistance to render it more complete: but we shall present our readers with the dimensions of only four. The dome of the Pantheon at Rome (supposed to be merely a vestibule of Agrippa's baths) was 142 feet wide and 143 high; that of St. Sophia, at Constantinople, 113 wide, 201 high; that of St. Peter's at Rome 139 wide, 330 high; that of St. Paul's 112 wide, 215 high. — Mr. Ware is evidently well acquainted with the principles of architecture, and his hints and criticisms in this section ought not to be slighted by the artist. He is perhaps right in his conjecture that 'to the cross we are indebted for the grand discovery of imposing a dome on arches:' but we do not altogether agree with him in his condemnation of the contrivance of Sir Christopher Wren for supporting the lantern on the top of the dome of St. Paul's. If Sir C. could have avoided the *mock external dome of carpentry*, the building would have been more complete: but from the fate that awaits St. Peter's church, owing to the pressure of the lantern on the dome, he has secured the protestant cathedral. We shall present the reader with Mr. Ware's remarks on this subject:

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‘ The disastrous effects from the weight of the lantern on the dome of Saint Peter’s, notwithstanding the deviation from Michael Angelo’s design, so alarmed Sir Christopher Wren, that he was determined neither to trust to science nor to chance ; and the cone was chosen, being a form which concentrated the risk in the frangibility of the material ; of the ability of which he could obtain proof independent of theory. Sir Christopher Wren had seen an English tile-kiln, and its cylindrical supported shaft. It might have been remembered that the merit did not consist in supporting an immense weight, but in the means. A cone prevented from spreading at the base, will sustain any weight at the vertex ; but a given weight, supported by a dome, demands its peculiar curvature ; and it is more praiseworthy to have partially failed at St. Peter’s than to have succeeded at St. Paul’s.’

We cannot subscribe to the conclusion of the last sentence. St. Peter’s must fall : but St. Paul’s, unless subverted by an earthquake, will stand from age to age.—We shall pass over the section on Pyramidal Vaults, which include the spires of Christian churches, and the convex vaults conspicuous (see Mr. Daniel’s beautiful views) in some Hindoo temples ; proceeding to Mr. Ware’s *Historical Sketch of Vaults*, on which he has bestowed much pains. To this part of the dissertation belongs the examination of the controversy respecting the antiquity of the arch ; and we think that this author, after having summed up the evidence on both sides, gives a judicious verdict. It seems now to be a generally admitted fact that neither the Egyptians nor the Greeks made use of *the arch*, i. e. of a curvature of stones secured by a *vousoir*, or key-stone ; and all the supposed authorities to the contrary, adduced by M. Dutens, only prove that he did not distinguish between vaults and arches.

‘ These authorities,’ observes Mr. Ware, ‘ declare that vaults are very ancient ; but it is to be observed, that the word Vault does not always imply the present mode of construction by *voussoirs* ; and though Pausanias speaks of the *Ærarium* of Minyas, as composed of stones, the highest of which secured all the others, it does not follow that they were of a wedge-like form ; for a vault may be composed of stones projecting one over another, (more than half their size,) so that the upper stone shall be necessary to the stability of the whole.

‘ The method of vaulting by *voussoirs* might be known to the Romans, and to the Greeks, before the time of the first Punic war ; but it is more derogatory to the latter people in a contemplation of their buildings to suppose them acquainted with vaults so constructed, than to suppose them ignorant of them. In the substitution of arches for lintels, the Romans in the latter ages were able to cover spacious openings with materials which, Sir Christopher Wren observes, a labourer might carry on his back.’—

‘ By the general adoption of the arch in architecture, to whomsoever the invention of it may belong, the Romans excelled the Greeks
in

in the science of building, as much as the Byzantine Greeks and the Gothic architects excelled them.'

Mr. W. is far from contemplating Grecian architecture with the fashionable enthusiasm; indeed, he prefers the Roman and Gothic as capable of greater magnificence, and offers the following laughable note in justification of his preference. 'The most magnificent example of Grecian architecture was perhaps the Temple of Jupiter Olympus at Elis. In it there was a sitting statue of that god, sixty feet high. It was observed by Strabo, (L. viii.) that if the god had got up, he must either have broken his own head or have made a hole in the roof. The god might safely play at leap-frog in Westminster-abbey.'

In the subsequent account of Groined ribbed Vaults, Mr. Ware repeats the principle on which Mr. Saunders has so well enlarged, and props the whole by the remark of Sir Christopher Wren in favour of pointed arches, that "these require less centering and thinner stones." As illustrative of Mr. S.'s position, and as affording some farther insight into the nature and beauty of Gothic architecture, we transcribe the subsequent passage:

'If the antiquary will not ascribe the ornaments characteristic of the Gothic architecture of the times of Henry the Third, and succeeding ages, to the vaulting the naves of the cathedrals, nor the pointed arch to the necessity for its production, but only to fortuitous circumstances, it must be acknowledged, that the contemporaneous production is remarkable, especially as those ornaments and that form are useful only in vaulted buildings.

'The second step differed from the first, inasmuch as at the vertex of the vault, a continued key-stone or ridge projects below the surface of the vault, and forms a feature similar to the ribs. But here it was necessary, that the ridge should be a stone of great length, or having artificially that property, because its suspension by a thinner vault than itself would be unsafe, unless assisted by the rib arches over the diagonals, and side, a distance equal to half the width of the vault. To obviate this objection, other ribs were introduced at intervals, which may be conceived to be groined ribs over various oblongs, one side continually decreasing. This practice had a further advantage, as the pannels or vaults between the ribs might become proportionally thinner as the principal supports increased. It is now that the apparent magic hardness of pointed vaulting and the high embowered roof began to display itself; from slender columns to stretch shades as broad as those of the oak's thick branches, and in the levity of the pannel to the rib to imitate that of the leaf to the branch.

'On comparing rib pointed vaulting with Roman vaulting, it will be invariably found, that the rib itself is thinner than the uniform thickness of the Roman vault under similar circumstances; and, that the pannel, which is the principal part of the vault in superficial quantity,

quantity, sometimes does not exceed one-ninth part of the rib in thickness. The Gothic architects, it has been expressively said, have given to stone an apparent flexibility equal to the most ductile metals, and have made it forget its nature, weaning it from its fondness to descend to the centre.'

With this extract we must take our leave of Mr. Ware's paper, and turn back to *A Description of a Mitre and Crosier, part of the ancient Pontificalia of the See of Limerick*. By the Rev. John Milner, D.D. — According to the description and representation, in an annexed plate, of these Pontificalia, they are very beautiful, and merit notice as specimens of antient art in Ireland, where they were made. The name of the *artifex*, exhibited in an enamelled inscription on this mitre (which is not of the common shape), is *Thomas O'Carty*, and the date is 1418, or the 5th year of our Henry V. 'The Crosier consists of massive silver, gilt, being seven feet long, and of the weight of about ten pounds,' and, says Dr. M., 'is not inferior either in taste and elegance, or in richness, to the celebrated one of his contemporary prelate, William of Wykeham, which is kept with so much care at New College, Oxford.' — To this account is subjoined an amusing history of mitres, &c. in which Dr. M. wishes to trace the practice of designating Christian bishops by some external ornament, or badge, to the example of St. John the Evangelist; quoting a passage from Eusebius's Ecclesiastical History, which asserts, on the authority of Polycrates, that this Evangelist wore a metal plate (πέταλον) like that which the Jewish High Priest wore on his forehead: but, as no intimation is given in the Gospels that the apostles imitated the Jewish priesthood, this assertion of Eusebius is not intitled to credit. The representatives of the apostles, in after-ages, have not contented themselves with a plain metal plate, but have sought more splendid distinctions. 'Few antiquaries,' observes Dr. M., 'are supposed to be ignorant that the pastoral staff of an archbishop is not a hooked crosier, but a processional cross. A patriarch, or primate, has two transverse bars upon it; the Pope has three. The carrying of such a cross before a metropolitan, in any place, was a mark that he claimed jurisdiction there.'

Translation of a Memoir on the celebrated Tapestry of Bayeux, by the Abbé de la Rue, communicated by the Translator, Francis Douce, Esq. F.A.S. — The object of this memoir is to correct some mistakes relative to the origin and antiquity of this celebrated piece of tapestry, which represents the conquest of England by William the Norman. In a former volume of the *Archæologia*, (Vol. iii. p. 186.) it is asserted that this piece of arras was executed by command of Matilda, William's queen: but

but it is here clearly shewn that it must have been worked posterior to her time, and that the artists must have been English, not Normans. It is unnecessary for us to detail the arguments adduced to manifest the high improbability of the commonly received notion, that Queen Matilda gave this tapestry to the cathedral of Bayeux ; of which improbability the inscriptions afford a decisive proof :

‘ The following inscriptions conclude the proof that this is not a work of the Normans, nor more especially that of Matilda. The first of these is where Duke William causes his soldiers to make a feigned retreat, in order to compel the enemy the more to expose himself ; we perceive the disorder occasioned by this movement, and also a ditch that is encountered by the Norman army. The inscription is, *hic Franci et Angli ceciderunt*. The second is where the Tapestry exhibits the moment of the victory, and describes it in these words, *hic Franci vicerunt et Angli terga dederunt*.

‘ It is necessary to be well acquainted with the English historians, and with the charters of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, in order to know that, whenever they design to speak of the Normans they call them *Frenchmen* : but who will believe that the Normans should have called themselves *Frenchmen* on this Tapestry, when it is notorious that at this time they bore an open hatred to the French nation ?’

The author of the memoir is persuaded that the tapestry cannot be older than the 12th century, and that tradition has confounded the grandmother with the grand-daughter ; or Matilda, Queen of William the Conqueror, with the Empress Matilda, daughter of King Henry I., the last shoot of the first family of the dukes of Normandy. — N. B. at p. 92. of this memoir, *Horace* is substituted for *Juvenal*.

King Charles the First's Warrant to Admiral Pennington, to deliver the Fleet under his command to the French ; communicated by George Duckett, Esq. F.R.S. — This document is so far valuable that it proves Mr. Hume's bias in favour of the Stuart race, and his unwillingness to admit evidence when it made against them. The accusation of the Duke of Buckingham, by the House of Commons, for delivering up ships to the French King, in order to serve against the Hugonots, is pronounced by Hume to be frivolous or false : but this warrant is an indisputable evidence that such an order was actually given under the sign-manual of Charles I.

Explanation of an antique Bacchanalian Cup, by the Reverend Stephen Weston, B.D. F.R.S. — This explanation does not appear to us very satisfactory. The cup is of glazed pottery ; and the figures, which are badly executed, seem to be little more than repetitions of one and the same design, rather than the

series of a procession representing ‘ the constant flux and reflux of animated beings !’

“ So learned commentators view,
In Homer more than Homer knew.”

An Account of a Bronze Figure found at Richborough in Kent, representing a Roman Soldier playing on the Bag-pipes. By the Same. — The learned writer supposes, from this figure and from inscriptions here copied from Gruter, which mention the *Corpus et Collegium Utriculariorum*, or fraternity of bag-pipers, that the Scots borrowed this instrument of music as they did the *plaid*, (which is in fact the *toga*,) and mode of wearing it, from the Romans.

An Account of a Coin of Germanicopolis. By the Same. — How this coin was procured we are not informed : but it appears to be older than any of the previously published coins of Germanicopolis ; since it bears the inscription of *Adriani Germanicopolitæ*. By the evidence of other coins of the same city, we find that Pliny was mistaken in placing Germanicopolis in Bythinia, and Ammianus Marcellinus in Isauria ; since it was in Paphlagonia.

Description of a Roman Altar found in the Neighbourhood of Aldston Moor, in Cumberland. By the Same. — This altar was found near a military road, not far from a great Roman station, and the account of it we shall give in Mr. Weston’s own words :

‘ The altar is three feet high, sixteen inches wide, and eight thick. It is divided into three compartments, the capital, the square or plane, and the base. On the top is an oval cavity one inch and a half deep, and about nine over by six, in which the wine, the frankincense, and the fire were placed, and was called *Thuribulum*, the censer, or the focus ; but this hole is not on all the Roman altars found in Great Britain. On the sides however of the one I am describing are two bass-reliefs, representing on one part the infant Hercules strangling two serpents, (as he is seen on a silver coin of Croton in Italy,) and on the other the god in all his strength about to combat the serpent in the garden of the Hesperides (as he appears on a coin of Geta struck at Pergamus). The inscription on the plane runs thus :

DEO
HERCVLI
C. VITELLIVS
ATTICIANVS
-E. LEG. VI.
V. P. F.

“ C. Vitellius Atticianus, Centurion of the sixth Legion, has caused this Vow to be offered to the God Hercules.”

Observations

Observations on a Piece of Antiquity found at Selborne in Hampshire, on the Estate of Mr. John White, late of Fleet Street, by Francis Douce, Esq. F.A.S. — After having recounted various conjectures on the original use of the articles here noticed, Mr. Douce is of opinion, (and we entirely concur with him,) that they were neither the cross-bars or *antenne* of the Roman standard, nor the beams of steelyards, but merely 'the upper part of the pouches, purses, or wallets of former times, which were generally suspended to a girdle by means of a loop.' — Little money-purses of morocco-leather, made nearly in this fashion, are still sold in the shops.

Remarks on some antient Marriage Customs. By the Same. — At the head of this paper, is a plate representing a small piece of silver, bearing on one side a heart between two hands, and on the other two fleurs de lis, with the inscription DENIRS DE FOY POVR EPOVSE. This was the betrothing penny formerly given at marriage-ceremonies, either as earnest-money, or for the actual purchase of the bride. To this short account of the marriage-denier, Mr. D. subjoins several notices of the antient practice of employing pieces of money as betrothing tokens, in conjunction with the ring; and probably the words in our marriage-service, "with my goods I thee endow," allude to this custom, since in the Salisbury Missal the rubrick directs, "*Ponat vir aurum vel argentum, et annulum, super scutum vel librum.*" The particulars given in addition explain the origin of *rough music*, and shew the present improved condition of the sex.

Leobard, the celebrated saint of Tours, in the sixth century, being persuaded in his youth to marry, gave his betrothed a ring, a kiss, and a pair of shoes. This ceremony has been explained, very much to the dishonour of the ladies, as referring to the absolute servitude of the party, who in this instance was symbolically tied, to use an expressive phrase, "neck and heels."

What an ungalant explanation!

Observations on an Inscription mentioned in the Statistical Survey of the County of Kilkenny. By W. Tighe, Esq. — This inscription, which Mr. Tighe endeavours to translate, is engraven on a stone which stands on a high hill in the county of Kilkenny, nicknamed Tory-hill, but called in Irish *Sleigh Grian*, i. e. "The Hill of the Sun." The letters of the inscription are said to resemble the Etruscan letters, and to be evidence that the nation to whom it owes its existence sprang from the same stock as the Etrurians. Though Mr. Tighe has manifested learning and ingenuity, we may be allowed to doubt the accuracy of his interpretation. The Irish name of the hill seems to have guided him in his solution.

An Historical and Descriptive Account of Ripon Minster, in the West Riding of the County of York, by the Reverend Robert Darley Waddilove, Dean of Ripon, F.A.S. — The ecclesiastical establishment at Ripon is of great antiquity, being founded at the introduction of Christianity on the conversion of the Saxons; and a college of monks was settled here in the year A.D. 661, by Alfred, King of Northumberland: but the original church has long ago disappeared; and the present structure of Ripon Minster was raised in A.D. 1140 by the munificence of Thurston, Archbishop of York, though it has been subsequently altered, enlarged, and improved.

‘The whole of the west front including its towers, the middle tower, and the transept, with a part of the choir and ailes, remain of his work. These remains are amply sufficient to furnish a clear idea of the plan and construction of this first very singular Anglo-Norman church. The time of the erection of it was precisely the æra when the narrow sharp-pointed Gothic arch first began to take place of the circular Saxon one; and they are both seen here in a perfection scarcely perhaps attained elsewhere in the kingdom.’

A conflagration, resulting from an invasion of the Scots, A.D. 1317, in the reign of Edward II., reduced this church to a state of ruin; and in the succeeding reign, under the fostering care of Melton, Archbishop of York, this fabric is reported to have been “re-edified:” which was probably the case, with the exception of the west front, (if this portion must be excepted,) when the whole, in its internal appearance, was converted into a Gothic structure of just and noble proportions. Other alterations are of a later date. Mr. W.’s account is well drawn up: but, having described the Ripon Minster as ‘on the whole presenting an edifice more nearly approaching to the just rules of architecture than, perhaps, any other structure of its kind in the middle age,’ he should have accompanied his description with a plan and elevation. We shall only add that, at p. 128., ‘Archæol. Vol. xiii. p. 29.’ should be p. 290., and that Bishop Thurston’s share of the present edifice cannot be ascertained with sufficient precision to enable us confidently to assert that he employed the pointed arch in his church at Ripon, in the first half of the 12th century.

A List of ancient Words at present used in the mountainous District of the West Riding of Yorkshire. Communicated by Robert Willan, M.D. F.R.S. — We hope that the example here set by Dr. Willan will be followed in other districts of England, since a perfect list of this kind would probably be of great use in elucidating our old writers. Then, perhaps, we may find where Milton obtained his word *Scrannel*, in his *Lycidas*. As
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a specimen of this Yorkshire vulgar English dictionary, we transcribe one article :

‘ STANG, s. a pole, the side or shaft of a cart.

‘ “ Riding the stang for a neighbour’s wife.”

‘ This is performed when a woman has gained the ascendancy over her husband, so as to make him bear every species of indignity.

‘ A man is set astraddle on a long pole, supported by the shoulders of his companions. In such an uneasy situation, he may be supposed to represent or to sympathize with his henpecked friend, whose misery he sometimes laments in doggrel rhimes. The procession passes through the whole hamlet, with a view of exposing or shaming the viraginous lady, and of thus preventing further outrages on the person of her partner ’

To this list of words, some general observations are added by way of conclusion. It is remarked by Dr. W. that nearly all the Yorkshire words here collected are Saxon, or Anglo-Saxon radicals ; and that the few Gaelic words, occasionally interspersed, have been adopted from the choruses of popular Irish songs, since the accession of his present Majesty. Dr. W. differs from Dr. Jamieson, who supposes that the Lowland Scotch and the English are not the same languages ; and he will by no means allow that the dialects of the Gothic tribes were so barren as to require to be enriched from the language of the Celts. He seems very jealous for the literary reputation of the Saxons, and is averse to the belief that they attended only to the din of arms and the operations of war. He has taken great pains to collect and display the various superstitious notions of the common people of the West Riding ; and, as these superstitions, however foolish and unfounded, are often attended with serious consequences, we trust that they are gradually subsiding.

[*To be concluded in our next Number.*]

ART. II. *A Narrative of the late Revolution in Holland.* By G.W.Chad. 8vo. pp. 255. 9s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1814.

MR. CHAD informs his readers, in a prefatory notice, that he arrived in Holland soon after the landing of the Prince of Orange at the end of 1813 ; and that, being honoured with the countenance of our ambassador, Lord Clancarty, he was admitted to intimacy with the persons most competent to convey correct information respecting the circumstances of the insurrection against Bonaparte’s government. He conceived, accordingly, the plan of writing the present narrative, and prescribed to himself the rule of not advancing any assertion unless

unless grounded on an official report, or on the verbal testimony of those who performed or witnessed it. He begins by a few preliminary observations on the leading occurrences, and on the state of parties, previously to the dreadful blow struck by Bonaparte at the prosperity of Holland in 1810. In that ill-fated year, two-thirds of the public stock were declared cancelled; the conscription was introduced; and the anti-commercial edicts were rigorously enforced. While the Dutch military establishment was raised from eighteen to fifty thousand men by successive levies in the course of three years. Proceeding on his ordinary plan of doing every thing by compulsion, Napoleon imposed the severest penalties on the relations of any young man who quitted his country to avoid the conscription, and threw a number of difficulties in the way of providing substitutes. The expence of a substitute was made in general about 300l. sterling; a burden under any circumstances sufficiently heavy, but almost insupportable when coupled with the enormous taxes levied on the unfortunate Hollanders. Moreover, the enforcement of the prohibition of commercial intercourse deprived the mercantile class of their income, and operated with far greater severity on Holland than on the interior of France or Germany: the consequence was a rapid emigration from a country once accounted the most comfortable in Europe. The population of Amsterdam was reduced in a few years from 220,000 to 190,000, the half of whom received their subsistence in whole, or in part, from charitable establishments; and in Haerlem, the Hague, Delft, and many other towns, several of the inhabitants had been obliged to pull down their houses from inability to keep them in repair or to pay the taxes. The preservation of the dykes, requiring an annual expenditure of 600,000l. sterling, was greatly neglected, and the sea was breaking through them in various quarters.

The popular party, which had welcomed the entrance of the French in 1795, were by this time taught that no hope of freedom could be cherished, as long as they remained under the controul of so powerful a neighbour; and they finally became convinced that the restoration of the house of Orange could alone afford relief to their distracted country. When the overthrow of the French army in Russia opened at last a door to hope, several of the leading Orangists began to hold secret meetings, for the purpose of arranging the measures which might enable them to seize the first favourable opportunity for recovering their liberty; and it was in these stolen interviews that the plan of the present constitution was first sketched. So cautiously, however, did they act, and so con-

ident was Bonaparte that an unmilitary nation like the Dutch would attempt no insurrection, that he marched almost the whole of his disposable force into the heart of Germany in the spring of 1813. His calculation held good until the battle of Leipsig had decided the fate of Germany: but no sooner was that memorable conflict known in Holland, than the Orangists ventured to extend the circle of their associates in the plan of insurrection. Their course of proceeding, however, still bore all the marks of the characteristic prudence of the Dutch:

‘ Each of the confederates selected, from among his friends, four individuals, who, without any mutual concert or knowledge of each other, engaged to be ready whenever called upon by the selector, and implicitly to obey his commands; every one of those, whose co-operation was thus secured, was then directed to make sure of four others — each of whom, in like manner, was to engage to be ready, at a moment’s warning, with whatever arms he could procure; yet none of these persons were made acquainted with the plot, except as to its final object; nor informed of any name, except that of his immediate selector. To avoid detection, nothing was committed to paper: no written engagement was entered into; — but the individuals thus chosen received verbal instructions, in case of any tumult, to repair immediately to the spot, mingle with the crowd, and there await the orders of their chief. Thus the confederates formed a band of near 400 respectable adherents, mostly selected from among the burghers of the town. This class possessed, in a high degree, the confidence of the people at large, and was well disposed to the cause of the Prince of Orange; if, however, contrary to all probability, any of the persons so chosen had been induced, either by corruption or intimidation, to reveal to the French police his knowledge of the plot, he could have betrayed only one name upwards in the scale, — namely, that of his immediate selector, whose individual safety thus depended upon the propriety of the choice of his instruments.

‘ Besides the above-mentioned band, Count Styrum succeeded in securing the services of Pronck, an inhabitant of Schœveningen, a village on the coast, about a mile from the Hague. This man possessed great influence among the sailors and fishermen in the neighbourhood; and engaged to furnish, at the shortest notice, fifty men, who should implicitly obey the orders of the confederates. No measures were taken (for none were necessary) to influence the people: it was perfectly clear that their good will and co-operation might be depended upon the moment leaders were presented to them, in whom they could confide.’

The next steps were to gain over the officers of the German troops in French pay stationed in Holland; a point in which the Orangists met with as much success as they could expect from the caution necessary in such delicate overtures. The whole military force scattered throughout Holland, whether French or others, did not exceed ten thousand men. In the

the beginning of November (1813), appearances became very alarming: the French custom-house officers and other retainers to the civil administration were observed to embrace with avidity all opportunities of returning home; and parties of Cossacks had already arrived on the eastern frontier. Bonaparte's vice-gerents in Holland now resorted to the artful expedient of offering a share of power to the known adherents of the Prince of Orange, in the hope of keeping the people quiet until the advance of a military force: but the Dutchmen were not to be caught in this way, being aware that any connection with so invidious a quarter would lessen their influence with the people.

We are accustomed in England to exaggerations in public reports, but they are mere trifles when compared with the rumours which circulate at a critical moment in France and Holland. So great was now the enthusiasm of the Dutch, that every skirmish lost at this time by the French was magnified into a pitched battle; and entire hosts were said to be overthrown, in the same way as the Spanish insurgents in 1808 represented themselves to be consuming myriads of their opposers with fire and sword. It was thus a matter of great difficulty to restrain the agitation of the lower classes, until it might have vent without the hazard of bringing destruction on its zealous supporters. The first burst of popular rage took place at Amsterdam on 15th November, and consisted in burning the wooden huts in which the hated *Douaniers* were accustomed to sit and collect the customs. To tranquillize the people, it was necessary to appoint a committee of the first men in Amsterdam to undertake the management of affairs; and the heads of the French administration quitted that city on the 16th. On the next day, the Orangists at the Hague openly declared themselves, at the suggestion of Count Styrum, one of the most zealous of their number, and brought forwards for the first time the name of the Prince of Orange as the head of the government. However, several of the old magistrates, whom they invited to assume public functions, declined to interfere, only a few hundreds of their countrymen being armed and equipped to act against the soldiery. Ammunition, accoutrements, horses, and military stores of every description had long been carried out of Holland, in consequence both of the necessities and of the policy of the French government; and, while the volunteers were thus devoid of weapons, the French General *Molitor* was at Utrecht ready to act against them at the head of four thousand regulars. No time was lost in dispatching, by means of fishing-boats, intelligence of the insurrection to the English cruizers on the coast; and on the 18th the Patriot Club, a very powerful
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body at Amsterdam, however, the most vehement opposers, in former days, of the House of Orange, came forwards to declare their readiness to support the measures which were taking for its re-establishment, without any other stipulation than that of a free constitution. On the 19th, the French authorities quitted Rotterdam, and confidential persons were dispatched to the nearest points which were said to be occupied by the allied troops ; who, however, were now found to be at a greater distance than the hopes of the Dutch had led them to imagine. Still it was in vain to urge the antient magistrates of the Hague or of Amsterdam to accept their former offices in the name of the Prince of Orange : these wary veterans considered the insurrection as premature ; they would do no more than pledge themselves to the maintenance of good order, and to perform, in their private capacity, all that was incumbent on citizens who wished well to their country.

Events now succeeded each other very rapidly ; and it might be said that not a day passed without a mixture of good and bad news. A plan laid for gaining over the garrison of the Briel, an important maritime fortress, was unsuccessful : but a small stock of ammunition, destined for a French garrison near the Maese, was luckily intercepted on that river. The contrary winds prevented the arrival of succours from England ; and the bad state of the roads in Germany retarded the march of the allies. On the other hand, a party of three hundred Cossacks advanced to Amsterdam, where the Prince of Orange was solemnly proclaimed on the 23d November. Meanwhile the French at Utrecht, having received some reinforcements, sent a high sounding message to the insurgents at the Hague, inviting them to avert, by their submission, the vengeance of Bonaparte ; a proposal which was treated by the confederates with contempt. It was, however, at this time that a scene of bloodshed unfortunately took place at the small town of Woerden, the Dutch volunteers being driven from it, and twenty-five of the inhabitants put to death. The allies were now advancing in earnest : but the common people had been so often disappointed, that they entertained doubts of the reality of the intelligence, and began to feel apprehensions of meeting with the fate of their brethren at Woerden.

‘ The anxiety of the public was now at the highest pitch. The first inquiry in the morning was, as to the state of the wind, which still continued adverse : its slightest alterations were watched with the greatest interest ; the road from the Hague to Schœveningen was crowded with persons of all ages and sexes, who spent the day on the coast, watching every sail, and deluded by false reports of the arrival of the English. In the midst of this anxiety, (on the 26th,)

a boat was seen to approach the shore, and it was soon discovered that it contained an Englishman. He landed, amidst the loudest acclamation; and the populace, without waiting for any explanation, and deaf to all remonstrances, conducted him in triumph to the governor's, and thence to M. Van Hogendorp's, amid the most enthusiastic demonstrations of joy. The person who had been thus mistaken for a British officer, proved to be a gentleman named Grant, who had come over on a mercantile adventure, but who had brought with him newspapers, which contained accounts of the hasty preparations that were making for the embarkation of troops for Holland. The effect excited by his arrival suggested the idea of keeping up the delusion; and, consequently, with the consent and approbation of M. Van Hogendorp, he dressed himself in an English volunteer uniform, and shewed himself in every part of the town.

‘The expedient succeeded for the moment beyond expectation, in inspiring the disheartened people with confidence, and intimidating the French; who, having learned the arrival of succours from England, together with a false report of the Cossacks having occupied Leyden, retreated towards Utrecht, and abandoned their intention of advancing upon the Hague. The people, however, were become so incredulous, by the constant succession of false intelligence, that it was very soon suspected to be a contrivance of the government; and some asserted, that the supposed British officer was an inhabitant of Rotterdam, who had been selected for the occasion. Mr. Grant, however, afterwards rendered more essential service, by carrying accurate intelligence to Admiral Ferrier of the state of affairs in Holland, and of the dangers to which the confederates were exposed.’

This circumstance, comparatively of little moment, was succeeded by the declaration of the Dutch commander in the Maese, Admiral Kikkert, in favour of the Prince of Orange, and by the adoption of a plan for securing the navigation of that river. Still, some apprehensions of the approach of the French troops from Utrecht were entertained, their numbers having been lately augmented. All eyes were now turned on the allied troops: with regard to whose movements, likewise, the Dutch were doomed to experience the fluctuations of hope and fear. The leaders of the detached parties on the Dutch frontiers gave assurance of support; but nothing effectual could be done without the sanction and cordial concurrence of the Generals. Winzingerode, the Commander in Chief at Bremen, replied to the urgent intreaties of the Dutch agent,

‘“That he had himself made war in Holland; that the dykes rendered cavalry useless; that the numberless fortresses arrested the advance of infantry — and that the passage of artillery was prevented by the quantity of canals. He urged, that a campaign in Holland required much preparation; that the frost was either a dangerous enemy,

enemy, or a capricious ally ; that his troops had as yet met with no reverse ; and that he could not commit the safety of his army by making numerous detachments ; that the most certain manner of conquering Holland was to make a demonstration upon Brabant ; and that, as to General Benkendorf, if he advanced, he should make him personally responsible for his conduct." General Wintzingerode continued immovable in this determination, which was, however, conveyed in the most polite manner, accompanied by many professions of good will to the cause, and commendations of the efforts that had been made by the people of Holland. M. Van der Hoven, considering now that the only resource left for him was to endeavour to obtain an order for the advance of General Wintzingerode, from the Prince Royal of Sweden, repaired immediately to his head-quarters, where he arrived on the 1st of December.

‘ The observations of his Royal Highness, on the conduct of the Dutch, were of considerable length, but appear to be too characteristic to be omitted in this place : he said to M. Van der Hoven, “ The people of Holland have done more than any other nation, for they have thrown off the yoke, without waiting till the combined armies were in the heart of their country ; they have declared themselves unanimously for their former sovereign ; this is well, for if they had not of their own accord taken this step, it would have been suggested to them. The provisional government has directed the energies of the nation to its proper object, and has acted in perfect conformity with the views of the coalition. The time has now arrived when nations are allowed to resume their old habits, and consult their affections and inclinations : however, I did not come from Sweden for the purpose of re-establishing the Prince of Orange, but the restoration of his family agrees with the views and principles of the coalition, and, therefore, I will do every thing in my power to assist you. Tell your countrymen that I approve their conduct, but let them bear in mind, that it is by perseverance alone, that they can render themselves worthy of the high destinies which await them ; let every Dutchman take up arms for the recovery of his independence as the people of Germany have done ; let me be informed of their progress, and let a direct correspondence be established for this purpose with my head-quarters ; let secret agents be employed to sound the dispositions of the inhabitants of Brabant ; and, above all, let the most unreserved and confidential communication be opened with the combined sovereigns at Frankfort. As to your present situation, will 15,000 men be sufficient for you ? if so, dispatch a courier to your government to inform them, that an order is signed for General Wintzingerode to advance immediately with 15,000 men. But tell me openly, is this number sufficient ; if not, I will give you 30,000 to complete the expulsion of the enemy. I hear that the French are reinforcing at Gorcum ; so much the better, we shall have them also. I have all the Saxons who were employed in the blockade of Dresden ; they will replace the Russians I shall send to you : I will come and visit you myself after the termination of the expedition I am now preparing, and which cannot detain me more than sixteen or twenty days. But, remember, let me hear of no retaliation, no spirit of

of vengeance. Let those individuals be preferred in the formation of the government who have suffered the most by the French, or who have gained the least by them. Nothing can be more just ; but let no one be excluded ; let there be no hatred of one another among you : I hate nobody, not even the Emperor (Napoleon) who has so cruelly injured France, and who has disgraced the French name. Let your efforts be employed to deliver yourselves from the enemy, and do not weaken yourselves by internal dissensions."

' On the day after his interview with the Prince Royal of Sweden, M. Van der Hoven returned to General Wintzingerode's headquarters, accompanied by an officer with an order from his Royal Highness for the General to advance — on the receipt of which he promised to be before Deventer by the 19th of December.'

These gratifying arrangements were accompanied by the appearance of the long expected succours from England, and by the arrival of the Prince of Orange in person. Nothing could surpass the zeal and exultation excited by his presence : a crowd of people rushed into the water to receive the boat in which he was rowed ashore ; and the inhabitants of the Hague eagerly contended for the privilege of having an English marine billeted at their houses. From this time forwards, all went on in the most favourable manner ; the Prussians taking Arnheim by storm on the 2d December, while fresh reinforcements continued to be poured in from England. The Dutch were still in great want of arms : but they found means, in the course of four months, to raise and equip twenty-five thousand regulars, with ten thousand of the landsturm or volunteers. Next came on the discussions about the new constitution, which was submitted to the consideration of an assembly of six hundred of the principal inhabitants, elected in the most impartial manner by the householders of the country at large. Of these, it was calculated that five-sixths were unanimous for the adoption of the constitution in the terms subsequently decreed, and of which an abstract is given in the Appendix to our last volume. The objections of the minority were directed to the provisions which vested the power of war and peace in the sovereign, and to the enactments in favour of religious dissenters.

Mr. Chad closes his narrative with what may be properly called the termination of the insurrectional movements in Holland ; adding, very modestly, (p. 159.) that he declined any attempt to describe the subsequent operations on the Dutch frontier, having few means of information that were not already before the public. Without pretending to the accuracy and polish of a professed writer, he has given a clear and unexaggerated account of a very interesting portion of the recent history of Europe, and has supplied materials of no inconsiderable importance to the future historian.

ART. III. *On the Value and Utility of the Freedom of the Hanse Towns.* By J. L. von Hess. Translated from the German Manuscript by B. Crusen. 8vo. pp. 159. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

THE name of Von Hess was well known in the insurrectional movement which took place in Hamburg, in the spring of 1813; that gentleman having held an important command in the volunteers, and having had the honour to be proscribed by Bonaparte on the re-occupation of the city by the French. After the progress of the campaign had relieved Germany from her fetters, and given Europe an assurance of a new state of things, M. Von Hess came over to London to advocate the cause of the Hanse Towns, (Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck,) with the British government.

As to the object of his mission, as far as we can collect it from the publication before us, it was to impress on our ministers the advantage to England, and to the world, of maintaining the independence of those cities, and of not permitting them to fall under the controul either of the Prussian or any monarchical government. The arguments in this treatise are general, and have in course no particular direction against a power which was at that time making such spirited sacrifices for the liberation of Germany. A few objections are indeed made to the interference of Prussia in the affairs of Dantzic: but the burden of the reasoning is founded on the oppression exercised by the French with regard to the trade of Hamburg. No sooner was that city declared by an edict of Dec. 1810 to form a portion of the French empire, than a lamentable decrease became apparent, not only in the trade of the town itself but in that of a number of remote districts in Germany and elsewhere; all of which drew directly or indirectly the means of active employment from Hamburg. The first part of the pamphlet (pp. 26. 31. 45. 50. 53, 54.) is appropriated to details of the foreign trade carried on in the better days of Hamburg; while in other passages (pp. 64. 66. 76.) the benefits arising from a state of freedom and commercial intercourse are very clearly illustrated. That the French government of that time miserably-misunderstood the true spirit of trade, we may collect from the following example of mischievous interference respecting an article sufficiently known to the connoisseurs of good living in our part of the world:

‘ The smoking and drying of beef was, for a long time past, a branch of industry by no means inconsiderable to Hamburg. Large quantities of that article were sent to all countries, even to America. From that unfortunate day (19th Dec. 1810) when Hamburg was incorporated with the French empire, the exportation

ation of smoked beef became prohibited, by virtue of the French tariff. It availed nothing to represent to the authorities, that the city of Hamburg, and of course the state to whom it now belonged, would thereby lose a material annual gain; that not one single ox, slaughtered for the purpose, was bred and fattened upon the territory of France, but bought and driven down from Jutland; that the amount of the smoked beef sold exceeded by far the first cost of the live cattle; that Copenhagen and the rest of Denmark received back for consumption a part of the meat thus sold, after having been smoked; that the post-establishment and the customs were benefited by the exportation; that the hides, horns, feet, bowels, and other offal from these beasts remained at Hamburg, and contributed to its nourishment and industry;—none of all these considerations were listened to. Only after the expiration of a full year, his Imperial Majesty condescended to decree, out of an excess of grace, the exportation of some hundred kilograms, (a kilogram is about 2 cwt. English) of smoked beef. Besides that this quantity was but small, the permission came too late; for that branch of industry had already emigrated to Altona!

To judge from certain expressions, such as (p. 82.) the author's anxiety to satisfy his readers concerning a favourable balance of trade, we should conclude that he has not made himself familiar 'with the true principles of commerce;' while other passages (pp. 138. 147.) seem to argue a mind in possession of the soundest ideas on the subject. Nothing can be more clear or convincing than his reasoning (p. 123. *et seq.*) on the discredit so unjustly attached to the name of liberty since the horrors of the French Revolution. He sums up in a few pages the merits of the case, and explains that nothing could stand on better grounds than the first opposition of the French people to the pride of the aristocracy and the oppression of the tax-gatherers: but the volatile spirit of the nation soon lost sight of the great end in view, and betrayed them in the name of liberty into proceedings the most unworthy of that "pure daughter of heaven."

M. Von Hess takes notice of several irregularities and inconveniencies in the management of affairs in Germany; such, for example, as the multiplication of tolls on the great rivers, all of which he is desirous of seeing removed on the establishment of an improved order of things. We should gladly have followed him into a larger field of inquiry relative to the interests of Germany; being satisfied that he is capable of treating the subject with talents and judgment: but it must be admitted that he comes before the English public under considerable disadvantages from the defects of his translator, who has no hesitation in making use of such expressions as (p. 38.) a 'nutrimental article;' (p. 113.) 'plurality' of a profession, for majority, &c. &c.

ART. IV. *A Voyage to the Isle of Elba; with Notices of the other Islands in the Tyrrhenian Sea.* Translated from the French of Arsené Thiébaud de Berneaud, Emeritus Secretary of the Class of Literature, History, and Antiquities; of the Italian Academy, &c. By William Jerdan. 8vo. pp. 207. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

THOUGH the translation of this work was owing to the extra share of public attention which had been directed to the island of Elba by late events, the original composition took place at a considerably previous period. Like many other reports of French literati, it is incumbered with a very unnecessary display of erudition; a variety of circumstances being adduced, not for any importance which they possess, but to create an impression that the range of the author's reading has been extensive; and the account of this insignificant spot is here divided into chapters and sections, with as much formality as if it were a considerable kingdom. As a proof of M. Thiébaud's solicitude to display his erudition, we need merely mention that he represents Porto Ferrajo, with all imaginable gravity, as standing on the spot which served as an asylum to the Argonauts on their passing along the coast of the Mediterranean, after the acquisition of the Golden Fleece! We must also remark, *en passant*, that the admirers of such traditions may have the gratification of meeting with them by wholesale in a ponderous work on Greek colonization, which has just issued from the Paris press, and from the pen of a writer of no small eminence among French literati, M. *Raoul-Rochette*.

The circumference of Elba is between fifty and sixty miles, its length being above twenty, and its breadth in most parts only five or six. A very good map of it is prefixed to this little work. Porto Ferrajo, its chief town, is remarkable only for a secure harbour and strong fortifications. The population of the place is inconsiderable, the whole island containing only twelve thousand inhabitants, of whose disposition and customs M. Thiébaud gives this account:

‘ I have not discovered among them either the cunning, the laziness, or the listlessness so natural to a southern people. They are extremely irritable, and impatient of contradiction; more addicted to superstition than to fanaticism, and almost universally ignorant and credulous. They are nevertheless endowed with a certain sprightliness of imagination, which renders them capable of receiving the strongest impressions; thence proceeds their excessive predilection for extravagant and romantic tales, for all that belongs to the marvellous, or is connected with quackery and deception. They are unacquainted with the monstrous luxury of cities. A hat of black straw, a white boddice, a short petticoat of red or blue, is the whole attire of the women. A flower, ribbons, a huge ring, large ear-
rings,

rings, a gold chain (of which the precious metal is lost in alloy); these are the objects of a female coquetry, which is not destitute of charms.

‘ In Elba, the vital current is of pure quality. The old men are not decrepid. I have known many of them who had reached their ninety-fifth year without experiencing the slightest ailment. The women are not in general beautiful; I have, however, met with pretty girls in the western mountains, and at Rio. They press their swelling bosoms under enormous busks laced tight with ribbons. This troublesome custom, at once absurd and barbarous, is among them the cause of a forced and disagreeable prominence in front, and imparts an unpleasant stiffness to their arms and motions. They are excessively jealous, and possessed of a high degree of sensibility. At the age of thirteen or fourteen they are marriageable; but when they arrive at thirty, they quickly become old, and exhibit at this age many symptoms of having reached a far more advanced period of life. They are good mothers, entirely devoted to their families, punctual and faithful in the discharge of all their duties.’

Elba, like most islands of small extent, is very mountainous, and the hills on the side opposite to the coast of Italy present an arid and forbidding aspect. From the influence of the temperature of the sea, the summer-heats are here less intense than on the main land; while severe cold is of such rare occurrence, that a frost for three days successively is accounted a wonder. Lakes and rivers are not to be expected on so small a spot, but fountains are frequently interspersed, though the greater number become dry in summer.

‘ Many rivulets meander through the island; the principal is that of Rio; whose source is in a delicious situation, a little below the village. Its waters are pure, exceedingly fresh, and abundant; they are spouted from six mouths into a basin which retains them. They increase and diminish with the day-light; and at the summer solstice, when other streams are generally low, the flow of this rivulet is most copious. I have often quenched my thirst, and always with new pleasure and enjoyment, at this delightful spring. The brook turns eighteen mills, and after running a mile is lost in the briny wave.’—

‘ It is to the filtration of the water of this rivulet that a phenomenon, which strikes both strangers and the natives of the island with astonishment, must be attributed. On digging a hole to the depth of a few inches in the sand washed by the waves of the sea, soft water, and of the most agreeable taste, is drawn up. It has this peculiar property in common with the Rhine, the Tagus, the Po, the Danube, and other great rivers.’

We feel no disposition to follow M. Thiébaud into his geological investigations, or into his discussions on the antient state of the island. It was raised for a time into notice by a well-known political arrangement: but it bids fair, since Bonaparte forsook its shores, to relapse into its primitive insignificance.

ART. V. *Klopstock and his Friends: a Series of Familiar Letters*, written between the Years 1750 and 1803. Translated from the German, with a Biographical Introduction, by Miss Benger. 8vo. pp. 309. 10s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1814.

Two centuries ago, Europe was chiefly attentive to artificial rank, but during the *last* century it became attentive to natural rank. Memoirs of deceased Sovereigns, Generals, or Ambassadors, occupied the chief care of antient biographers: but living writers of lives are called to collect the anecdotes, to ransack the papers, and to edit the remains of genius. The popularity of this task pushes to excess the assiduity with which it is performed; and we now incur the danger of too minute a care, of too prying a curiosity, and of too indiscriminate an exhibition of the personal concerns and abortive effusions of deceased intellect. Mr. Klammer Schmidt, the publisher of Klopstock's letters, has in a great degree avoided this indiscretion; yet we shall sometimes have to notice, in the course of our remarks on this volume, allusions to domestic incidents and confidential feelings, of which in our judgment the publication was at least superfluous. This whole correspondence, however, has high claims to authenticity, being copied from papers in the possession of Klopstock's widow: yet it appears from one of the letters that Klopstock had asked for the return of his early correspondence from his several friends, or their survivors; and that he had re-transcribed several of the documents with omissions. The professed object of the poet was to preserve the particulars of those incidents which had been celebrated in his Odes: but over one transaction, his desertion of Fanny, he has contrived to throw a more glistering poetic veil than the original epistles can have included. Perhaps it will not be unwelcome if we give a short sketch of the personal history of a bard so justly dear to piety, and so eminent for genius and for originality.

Frederic Gottlieb Klopstock was born in the abbey at Quedlinburg, 2d July 1724, and was the son of the land-steward of the domain, who occupied a part of it as farmer, and whose family was large, the poet being the eldest of ten children. The father had all the credulity of Luther; believing in the personal appearance and bodily presence of the Devil in the world. He paid great attention to those fits of persuasion respecting impending events, which alternate in the human imagination; and every hope or fear was with him ominous, whether dreamed awake or asleep. This vividness of fancy was caught, or inherited, by the son; who was early accustomed to speak of interior realities as positive beings, and classed the creatures of idea, *les êtres de raison* as the French oddly term them, among the familiar personages of conversation.

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The early years of the poet were not burdened with application. His elasticity of soul was never weighed down by premature and excessive tasks : he was more remarked for activity of body than for cultivation of mind ; and though he received lessons, at first from a domestic preceptor, and afterward in the gymnasium at Quedlinburg, yet a fear was entertained on removing him in his sixteenth year to the Schulpforte, a celebrated academy or college in Saxony, that he would barely pass decently through the requisite examinations. From 1739 to 1745, he continued at the Schulpforte, studying the Greek and Latin languages, and composing occasionally an eclogue, or an ode. He already conversed with his academical friends respecting the project of undertaking an epic poem, and shewed them fragments about Herman, and a sketch of the plan of the Messiah. The custom being for scholars, on leaving the Schulpforte, to make a Latin farewell-oration, the topic which he chose was ‘The highest Aim of Poetry.’ — He was sent next to Jena : but, not liking that university, he obtained permission to join his cousin Schmidt at Leipzig, who was studying the law, and who had offered him the joint use of a sitting-room. Here the friends took English lessons together : Milton, Young, Ossian, and Mrs. Rowe’s Letters, being among their favourite books. At Leipzig, also, were written the first three cantos of the Messiah. Schmidt admired them enthusiastically ; shewed them to Kramer, who edited a magazine at Bremen ; and prevailed on Klopstock to suffer them to be printed in that miscellany, which accordingly took place in the beginning of the year 1748.

Throughout Germany, the sensation produced by this specimen was quick, strong, and warm. The heroic grandeur of the moral and physical delineations could not but be very impressive ; and the colossal sublimity of the mythological decorations must in course astonish and overawe. The windows of heaven seemed opened, and man permitted to look in. Critics afterward arose in every quarter ; enthusiasm exhausted the ebullitions of panegyric, and carping attempts were made at censure and at parody : but the frequent admiration of taste, reinforced by the zeal of piety, soon silenced even well-founded objections ; and the Messiah, though but one seventh of it had yet appeared, was already hailed and received as an everlasting possession. It was quoted in every conversation-party, and in every pulpit, as an immortal religious classic ; from the women it excited tears of delight, and from the men shouts of applause : Milton was called the Homer, and Klopstock the Virgil of Christianity. — During the progress of his epopea, Klopstock wrote many beautiful single odes : but, as they

they were published separately and in various periodical works, they did not attract so marked a notice as the Messiah, until they were first collected in 1771.

In 1748, Klopstock quitted Leipzig, and accepted the situation of preceptor in the house of a relation named Weiss, where he met and fell in love with Schmidt's sister Fanny. It appears *probable*, from the correspondence, that this young lady conducted herself with a calm and irreproachable docility to parental instructions; and that all the poetic enthusiasm of her lover could extract no indiscreet promise, while his income was deemed too small and precarious for house-keeping: but it is *clear* that, as soon as Klopstock had obtained a pension from the court of Denmark, and was in a situation to marry, there was no impediment on the side of Fanny, or Fanny's relations. See the xxixth letter, p. 117. of this correspondence. Klopstock sends in reply the letter numbered xxxii., which contains very fine poetry, but announces on *his* part a disposition to break off an acquaintance which Fanny had hitherto been suffered to consider as an engagement. The writer's plea is Fanny's indifference, of which we can discover no decisive evidence; whereas it appears that the amorous poet had himself fallen in love elsewhere, with a Miss Margaret Moller of Hamburgh.

During the summer of 1750, Klopstock, by Bodmer's invitation, came to visit Zurich and the landscapes of Swisserland. His glowing admiration has been perpetuated in a very beautiful Ode to the Lake; and many incidents of this tour, of which the critic Sulzer was a companion, are recorded in the journal which forms a part of the correspondence here published. The veneration of Bodmer for the poet of the Messiah was of so serious a kind, that he was quite mortified to find Klopstock fond of the society of young men, and disposed to indulge in their freer and gayer frolics:—on the orgies of unchastity, Bodmer had been inured to cast a pastoral frown.

Klopstock was applying for the situation of a teacher at the Carolinum, an eminent academy in Brunswick, when the celebrated Danish minister Bernstorff, who was struck by the talents displayed in the commencement of the Messiah, invited the poet to Copenhagen, presented him to the King, and obtained for him a pension of four hundred dollars, that he might be able to subsist while his time was devoted to the completion of his great and pious undertaking. In 1751, he went to Copenhagen, and composed there in 1752 an elegy on the Queen's death, but returned in 1754 to Hamburgh, where he in that year married Miss Moller, whom he celebrates by the name Meta. She was the daughter of a merchant, an intelligent woman, and enthusiastically attached to Klopstock: she died
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in 1758.—Though frequently with his wife's relations at Hamburg, the poet always considered Copenhagen as his home, until 1771; when the death of Count Bernstorff took place. The loss of his friend and patron, and of that hospitable access to high society which was connected in some degree with the countenance of the prime-minister, gave a preponderance to the social value of Hamburg, or rather Altona, where he resided until 1775; when he accepted an invitation to Carlsruhe, accompanied with the offer of a pension from the Margrave of Baden. There, in 1791, he contracted a second marriage with an elderly female friend, named Johanna von Winthem, who survived him.

At the beginning of the French Revolution, Klopstock wrote Odes in its praise: but, after it had assumed a sanguinary character, he sent back to the Convention some honorary distinction which had been voted to him. His strange Ode on the Apotheosis of Marat is perhaps the bitterest satire extant in human literature.—Klopstock died in 1803, and was buried with great solemnity on the 22d March, eight days after his decease. The cities of Hamburg and Altona concurred to vote him a public mourning; and the residents of Denmark, England, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, joined in the funeral procession. Thirty-six carriages brought the senate and magistracy, all the bells tolling: a military procession contributed to the order and dignity of the scene; vast bands of music, aided by the voices of the theatre, performed appropriate symphonies, or accompanied passages of the poet's works: the coffin having been placed over the grave, the preacher, Meyer, lifted the lid, and deposited in it a copy of the Messiah; laurels were then heaped on it; and the death of Martha, from the fourteenth book, was recited with chaunt. The ceremony concluded with the dead mass of Mozart.

Sturz remarks of Klopstock that, although easily familiar to equals and inferiors, he never courted a superior; and that a man of rank had always to take many more steps to obtain Klopstock's good graces, than the poet would advance. Humour, good humour, a playful fancy, and a bold felicity of diction, marked his conversation: he was not impatient of contradiction, but seemed to prefer in his companions independence to acquiescence. Besides his Odes and the Messiah, he left some dramatic poems of singular structure, containing a life of Herman. The dialogue is in prose: but a chorus of bards is introduced, whose songs, though without rhyme, are metrical. The poet of Samson Agonistes had made Euripides his model; the poet of Herman's battle has rather the lofty character of Æschylus: but the total avoidance of Greek ideas,
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the unborrowed tone of sentiment, and the truly Germanic costume of manners, give to these dramas the appearance of druidical remains.

A characteristic letter from Klopstock is that which is dated from Schaffhausen ; and we shall quote it, not merely because it makes a sublime impression, like the fall of the Rhine which it describes, but because the thoughts have been again employed in some of his finest odes ; and thus it reveals the literary secret, that it is only by recollecting the strong impressions of experience, and applying them to new cases and objects, that genius accomplishes its command over the feelings :

‘ We were yesterday present at a wedding-festival, and saw the Suabian damsels dance, and caroused with the swains till we were almost too merry. We again beheld the Alps more distinctly than before, the full moon accompanied us the whole night through a fine rich sylvan country.

‘ We have this morning often had a glimpse of the Rhine as it flows softly through the woods. The vine-covered hills encircle the town, and you may imagine they were not viewed with indifference by those who know the joys of wine. On the bridge of the Rhine we descried with rapture this land of promise. We have crossed the bridge and are now hastening to see the falls of the Rhine. I have pledged myself to the nymphs of that majestic river to drink wine on their banks, and shall not fail to perform the libation.

‘ The Falls of the Rhine.

‘ What a sublime image of the creation does this cataract present ! all powers of description are here baffled, such an object can only be seen, and heard, and contemplated.

‘ Hail, oh ! thou magnificent stream now thundering from the heights above, and thou who hast caused the stream to pour forth that awful sound, oh Creator, be thou thrice blest, thrice hallowed ! Here, stretched on this verdant terrace, in sight of the stupendous torrent, in the sound of its rushing waters, I salute you all, my near and distant friends.

‘ Above all, I salute thee, thou land of heroes, on whose holy earth I shall soon imprint my steps ! oh that I could gather to this spot all the objects of my affection, that I could unite them to enjoy with me these miracles of nature ! on this spot would I spend my days and close my eyes, for it is lovely !

‘ I have no words by which to paint my feelings, I can only think of the friends who are absent ; I can form but the wish to draw them all into one circle, and to dwell with them here for ever.’

We will now copy the truly poetical letter in which Klopstock intimates to Fanny his intention to break off their acquaintance :

‘ Your little anacreontic dove, my dearest cousin, arrived yesterday, on a lovely spring evening, whilst the full moon beamed in all her beauty ; and found me in a country which might vie with any in Saxony

Saxony for its delightful aspect. The nightingales sing here as early as with you; and if you would but send more little doves, they should all fly with me to some wooded dell, and light on every lowly bush where the nightingales are wont to chaunt their tender songs.

‘ I find this place not so near the north pole as you suspect, and, indeed, as I too once supposed, and I enjoy here all the quiet and delicious seclusion of country life.

‘ The King, who is the best and most amiable man in Denmark, is pleased to provide for me this delightful residence. Several stately mansions have been erected on the island; the King has chosen for his retreat a mere villa, without the smallest pretensions to grandeur; but, in point of situation, the most pleasant in the neighbourhood. In this small house he occupies but one apartment, exclusive of an audience chamber; but it stands in the middle of a wood; in which are nearly a hundred vistas, crossing each other in pleasing confusion, and all leading to the sea. It was to one of these sequestered paths that I yesterday withdrew on the arrival of your unlooked for letter; and, having perused and reperused the contents, I at length thus addressed the little dove:

“ And thou art come to me at last, little amiable Dove; but thou hast spent a tedious time on the way! Fain would I question thee; but I perceive thou art out of breath. So come and perch on this long pendant bough, on which the moonbeams are most bright, and where the gales of evening breathe most softly. Here rest a while to recover from thy fatigue; I will then whisper to thee a few questions.

“ “ Listen now then, sweet darling, and tell me, had not spring begun to bloom ere thou didst take thy flight from home, and did not thy mistress sometimes ramble to those haunts, where I have so often walked with her alone?

“ “ Yes, sometimes she went towards the spot, but soon came back.

“ “ Was she alone? *usually* and always gay?

“ “ Was she not sometimes wont to speak to thee of her friends?

“ “ Sometimes she would mention them.

“ “ But tell me, sweetest bird, had I a place among them?

“ “ Your name seldom escaped her lips.

“ “ But hast thou not been present when she had received a letter from an absent friend?

“ “ Oh, often enough. I have seen her lay down the letter with a very serious look, and either take up a book or pursue some other avocation.

“ “ Hast thou not sometimes observed a tear of pity in her lovely eyes?

“ “ *Never*, she is too wise for that.

“ “ Hold, Dove, I will pluck the fairest feather from thy wing, if thou dare again to pervert language, by giving the sacred name of wisdom to such impenetrable hardness of heart.

“ “ If you use me thus for speaking the truth, I must instantly fly away.

“ “ Stay, my bird, I will do thee no harm.

REV. MAY, 1815.

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“ “ Then

‘ “ Then I consent to tarry with you ; but why have you ceased to ask questions ? and why is your countenance so sad ?

‘ “ Nay, now I thought I had a cheerful look.

‘ “ Can you call that cheerfulness, which is but the flimsy disguise of an old inveterate sorrow — a captivity from which you vainly struggle to escape ? Yet you appeared so glad when I first approached, that I wonder what can have happened since to produce the sudden change ; sure I am I have not wronged you ! No, by all the powers of Olympus, I would not have done aught to injure you, for never have I perceived so strong an expression of anguish in any face as I now perceive in your countenance, and yet you appear to have a heart pure from self-reproach.

‘ “ Come hither, my sweet bird, rest on my lyre, and I will play thee a song of a certain *Fanny*, the dear and only object of my existence. Why droops thy little fluttering pinion ? and why art thou so sad ? “ Oh, cease to play that strain, or I fly for shelter to yon dark copse, and behold thee no more.”

‘ “ Remain with me, my pretty companion, and I will cease to sing. Yet, one word more, and I have done. Why does your mistress impute my not seeing her previous to her departure to neglect, when she ought to have known, my absence had another and far different source ?

‘ “ You require of me too much — I am but her messenger, and pretend not to divine her secret thoughts.”

‘ In this manner I prattled with your little dove, till we were interrupted by a party of intruders, who dragged me from the delicious wood, the beautiful shore, and my beloved companion.

‘ Would you again write to me ? Letters are usually but eight days on the road, though this has made such a tedious journey. If you seriously mean to write an ode on Miss Hagenbruch’s marriage, I beg you will send it to me. You may perhaps happen to lay your hand on another ode you once promised to return, and in which one line runs thus,

‘ How blest were my days whilst a stranger to love !’

We will also insert a letter to Charles Klopstock from the amiable and venerable Gleim, the author of some war-songs, and of some anacreontic poems. He was an enthusiastic admirer of genius, a worshipper of poets, and disposed, like Paulus Jovius, to revive in their favour a sort of classical idolatry : he erected at his private expense various sculptured monumental marbles on the spots which Klopstock had consecrated in song ; he employed artists in making busts and portraits of his friends, or in painting the fine moments of their works ; and he gave by his affectionate veneration new impulse both to friendship and to fame.

‘ The Klopstocks are perverse beings.

‘ Like all the corrupt children of men — they live but for themselves, not for their friends, not for their brothers and sisters. From the eldest, who was my sworn friend, I have not now for some years received a single line, not a half salutation have I had from him, and

yet I know he means me well, and has nothing to allege against me. All human beings, even the best of them, are a perverse and miserable generation. They come good out of God's hands ; as long as they are boys, youths, and even men till they have reached the fortieth year, they still retain something good ; but then the light wanes, and is at length wholly extinguished. With all my old friends, it has been my fortune to see this remark verified. Their letters are ardent in youth, in mature life lukewarm, cold as ice when age approaches, till at length the feeble spark is quite exhausted. I could produce an immense collection of manuscripts to corroborate the assertion. It were, however, useless to complain, since the rule is universal ; and little does it avail, that in my own person I form a sad and solitary exception.

' I take it for granted, you would have sent me some literary intelligence from the Hague, if you were still a lover of the muses. I do not expect that you can find time to encumber yourself with transactions of state, or the cabals of the Voltaires, the Vangoens, the Rousseaus. I will not, therefore, ask for news, but content myself with assuring you that I am unalterably yours.'

These three specimens may suffice to ascertain the sort of entertainment which may be expected from this agreeable series of letters. Many of them are in this country rather superfluous ; and a more scanty selection would have been enough to give an idea of those men whose celebrity has penetrated into our parlours and studies. The epistles of Schmidt and Schuldness, and of Langemack and Weiss, (see number xlv.) might in general have been spared.

Much praise is due to the fair translator of this volume for the completeness of the Introduction, and for the elegance of the version.

ART. VI. Captain Flinders's *Voyage to Terra Australis*.

[*Art. concluded from the Rev. for Feb. p. 167.*]

WE broke off at the close of Captain Flinders's first volume, which left him at Port Jackson. The first half of his second volume is occupied with the continuation of his survey of the coasts of New Holland. In an accurately kept journal of a sea-voyage, more especially of a voyage of discovery, unavoidably much nautical matter will occur, useful to the mariner and geographer, but in which few other readers can take interest. This occasional interruption to miscellaneous events, when its utility is evident, is seldom felt as an inconvenience : but Captain Flinders's voyage was rather one of survey than of discovery ; and consequently the geographical details bear so large a proportion to the descriptions of country and narrative of

of events, that it might have been advantageous to have kept them separate.

On the 22d of July, 1802, the Investigator sailed from Port Jackson, northward, making a survey of the coast. At the distance of 200 leagues, Captain F. arrived at a point of land which has been named Sandy Cape; where he met with inhabitants who spoke a language totally different from that of the natives in the neighbourhood of the British settlements. The Captain had engaged one of these last mentioned, a man named Bongaree, to go with him in his ship from Port Jackson, to serve as an interpreter: but, finding that the people here did not understand his language, the poor fellow, 'in the simplicity of his heart addressed them in broken English, hoping to succeed better.' The natives of Sandy Cape, who were very black, and went entirely naked, gave a proof of peaceable and unoffending dispositions, such as not often has been found among people so wholly uncivilised.

'A part of the ship's company was allowed to go on shore abreast of the ship, for no Indians had hitherto been seen there; but towards the evening, about twenty were observed in company with a party of the sailors. They had been met with near Cape Keppel, and at first menaced our people with their spears; but, finding them inclined to be friendly, laid aside their arms, and accompanied the sailors to the ship in a good-natured manner. A master's mate and a seaman were, however, missing, and nothing was heard of them all night.'

The next day, boats were dispatched to different parts of the shore to search for the two men; and Captain F. went in one of them. He relates;

'On my return to the ship, the master's mate and seaman were on board. The officer had very incautiously strayed away from his party, after natives had been seen; and at sunset, when he should have been at the beach, he and the man he had taken with him were entangled in a muddy swamp amongst mangroves, several miles distant; in which uncomfortable situation, and persecuted by clouds of musketoes, they passed the night. Next morning they got out of the swamp; but fell in with about twenty-five Indians, who surrounded and took them to a fire place. A couple of ducks were broiled; and after the wanderers had satisfied their hunger, and undergone a personal examination, they were conducted back to the ship in safety. Some of the gentlemen went to meet the natives with presents, and an interview took place, highly satisfactory to both parties; the Indians then returned to the woods, and our people were brought on board.'

It has been generally believed that M. de la Pérouse was wrecked on some island near New Caledonia; and Captain Flinders has expressed himself strongly of this opinion:

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‘ At every port or bay,’ he says, ‘ which we entered, more especially after passing Cape Capricorn, my first object on landing was to examine the refuse thrown up by the sea. The French navigator, La Pérouse, whose unfortunate situation, if in existence, was always present to my mind, had been wrecked, as it was thought, somewhere in the neighbourhood of New Caledonia; and if so, the remnants of his ships were likely to be brought upon this coast by the trade winds, and might indicate the situation of the reef or island which had proved fatal to him. With such an indication, I was led to believe in the possibility of finding the place; and though the hope of restoring La Pérouse or any of his companions to their country and friends could not, after so many years, be rationally entertained, yet to gain some certain knowledge of their fate would do away the pain of suspense; and it might not be too late to retrieve some documents of their discoveries.’

Loss of anchors among the Barrier Reefs, and apprehensions that the monsoon would change before the ships could reach the Gulf of Carpentaria, obliged Captain Flinders to keep without the reefs from the 20th degree of latitude to Torres’ Strait: but this portion of the east coast had been closely followed by Captain Cook, and some part of it yet more closely by Captain Bligh in the launch of the *Bounty*. In the Gulf of Carpentaria, the *Investigator* was found to be in an extremely decayed state; a mortifying discovery, which put it out of Captain F.’s power to carry on his survey to the west side of New Holland, and made it necessary, after having completed the survey of the Gulf of Carpentaria, to return to Port Jackson: which was done in a tract first westward, and afterward through Bass’s Strait. On leaving the Gulf, Captain Flinders put into Arnhem Bay, and was not a little surprized at meeting there a number of small vessels belonging to Macassar.

‘ The object of their expedition was a certain marine animal, called *trepang*. Of this they gave me two dried specimens; and it proved to be the *beche-de-mer*, or sea-cucumber which we had first seen on the reefs of the east coast, and had afterwards hauled on shore so plentifully with the seine, especially in Caledon Bay. They get the *trepang* by diving, in from three to eight fathoms water; and where it is abundant, a man will bring up eight or ten at a time. The mode of preserving it is this: the animal is split down one side, boiled, and pressed with a weight of stones; then stretched open by slips of bamboo, dried in the sun, and afterwards in smoke, when it is fit to be put away in bags, but requires frequent exposure to the sun. A thousand *trepang* make a *picol*, of about one hundred and twenty-five Dutch pounds; and one hundred *picols* are a cargo for a prow. It is carried to Timor, and sold to the Chinese, who meet them there; and when all the prows are assembled, the fleet returns to Macassar.’

Of this *trepang*, or sea-cucumber, ‘ the Chinese make a soup which is much esteemed for its supposed invigorating qualities.

There are two kinds of trepang. The black is sold to the Chinese for 40 dollars the picol: the white or grey is worth no more than 20. Pobassoo (commander of one of the Macassar vessels) had made six or seven voyages to this coast within the last 20 years, and he was one of the first who came.' The author could find no other nautical instrument among them than a very small pocket compass.

Having staid some time at Timor, early in June Captain F. arrived the second time at Port Jackson; where the Investigator was surveyed by persons properly qualified, and was pronounced unfit for farther service. His ship being thus condemned, the Captain embarked on board the Porpoise, an armed King's vessel, to take his passage to England; and on August the 10th, (1803,) the Porpoise, with two merchant ships, named the Bridgewater and Cato, sailed in company from Port Jackson, steering to the northward, intending to pass through Torres' Strait. On the 17th, at noon, the navigators were in latitude $23^{\circ} 22' S.$, and 50 leagues distant from the main land of New South Wales. Soon after noon, they passed a low sand island: from that time, till it grew dark, they ran 35 miles; and, no other land having been seen, little danger was apprehended in continuing their route under easy sail during the night. The course steered was north by west; the wind was south-east by east, a fresh breeze; and the ship under double-reefed topsails. At eight o'clock, soundings were tried, and no bottom found at the depth of 35 fathoms.

' The Bridgewater was then about half a mile on the starbord, and the Cato a mile on the larbord quarter; and their distance seeming to increase at nine, when our rate of going was eight knots, the fore-sail was hauled up to keep them in sight; wind then at S.E. by E.

' In half an hour, and almost at the same instant by the Investigator's carpenter on the fore-castle, and the master who had charge of the watch on the quarter-deck,—breakers were seen a-head. The helm was immediately put down, with the intention of tacking from them; but the Porpoise having only three double-reefed top-sails set, scarcely came up to the wind. Lieutenant Fowler sprang upon deck, on hearing the noise; but supposing it to be occasioned by carrying away the tiller rope, a circumstance which had often occurred in the Investigator, and having no orders to give, I remained some minutes longer, conversing with the gentlemen in the gun-room. On going up, I found the sails shaking in the wind, and the ship in the act of paying off; at the same time there were very high breakers at not a quarter of a cable's length to leeward. In about a minute, the ship was carried amongst the breakers; and striking upon a coral reef, took a fearful heel over on her larbord beam-ends, her head being north-eastward. A gun
was

was attempted to be fired, to warn the other vessels of the danger ; but owing to the violent motion and the heavy surfs flying over, this could not be done immediately ; and before lights were brought up, the Bridgewater and Cato had hauled to the wind across each other.

‘ Our fore-mast was carried away at the second or third shock ; and the bottom was presently reported to be stove in, and the hold full of water. When the surfs permitted us to look to windward, the Bridgewater and Cato were perceived at not more than a cable’s length distance ; and approaching each other so closely, that their running aboard seemed to us inevitable. This was an awful moment ; the utmost silence prevailed ; and when the bows of the two ships went to meet, even respiration seemed to be suspended. The ships advanced, and we expected to hear the dreadful crash ; but presently they opened off from each other, having passed side by side without touching ; the Cato steering to the north-east, and the Bridgewater to the southward. Our own safety seemed to have no other dependence than upon the two ships, and the exultation we felt at seeing this most imminent danger passed was great, but of short duration ; the Cato struck upon the reef about two cables length from the Porpoise, we saw her fall over on her broad side, and the masts almost instantly disappeared ; but the darkness of the night did not admit of distinguishing, at that distance, what further might have happened.

‘ Turning our eyes towards the Bridgewater, a light was perceived at her mast-head, by which we knew she had cleared the reef ; and our first sensations were, that the commander would certainly tack, and send boats to our assistance ; but when a little reflexion had enabled us to put ourselves in his place, it became evident that he would not choose to come so near the reef in the night, blowing fresh as it did ; and still less to send his boats and people into the breakers, to their certain destruction.

‘ The Porpoise had very fortunately heeled towards the reef ; so that the surfs which struck against her turned-up side, flew over without washing any thing off the decks ; and the smooth appearance of the water under the lee, afforded a prospect of being able to get the boats out on that side. The experiment was tried with a small four-oared gig, and succeeded ; but a six-oared cutter was jerked against the sheet-anchor by the violence of the shocks, and being stove, was filled with water.’

Captain Flinders attempted in the small boat to join the Bridgewater, in order to point out to her commander what steps might be most speedily taken for the preservation of the crews of the Porpoise and Cato : but the Bridgewater kept at so great a distance, and the sea ran so high, that his gig was forced to return.

‘ Of the poor Cato,’ he says, ‘ we could neither see nor hear any thing. It appeared that Captain Park, when meeting the Bridgewater on opposite tacks, stopped setting his main-sail and bore away to leeward ; had he persevered, both ships must have come upon the reef together ; but by his presence of mind on this occasion, the Bridgewater

weathered the breakers and escaped the impending danger. When the *Cato* struck the reef, it was upon the point of a rock, under the larboard chess-tree; and she fell over to windward, with her decks exposed to the waves. In a short time the decks and holds were torn up, and every thing washed away; and the sole place left, where the unfortunate people could hope to avoid the fury of the sea, was in the larboard fore channel, where they all crowded together, the greater part with no other covering than their shirts. Every time the sea struck the *Cato*, it twisted her about upon the rock with such violent jerks, that they expected the stern, which was down in the water, would part every moment. In this situation, some lashing themselves to the timber heads, others clinging to the chain-plates and dead eyes, and to each other, Captain Park and his crew passed the night; their hope being, that the fore-castle of the ship might hold upon the rock till morning, and that the *Bridgewater* would then send their boats to save them. From the *Porpoise* they entertained no hope; and until the signal-lights were seen, they thought her gone to pieces. —

‘ With the day-light appeared a dry sand-bank, not more than half a mile distant, sufficiently large to receive us all with what provisions might be got out of the ship; and the satisfaction arising from this discovery was increased by the *Bridgewater* being perceived under sail, and though distant, that she was standing towards the reef. On the other side, the appearance of the poor *Cato*, with the people waving to us from the bowsprit and fore-castle, the only parts above water, was truly distressing.

‘ The reef seemed to be a mile in breadth, and it extended in an east and west direction to a distance beyond what could be distinguished from the *Porpoise*’s deck; but there were in it several wide, and apparently deep openings, by which the *Bridgewater* might run to leeward, and there anchor or lie to, whilst sending her boats to our assistance.’

In vain, however, help was expected from the *Bridgewater*, since the man who commanded her, (named Palmer,) attentive solely to his own safety, shamelessly made sail from the reefs, and pursued his course for India: but the people of the *Porpoise* and the *Cato* got safe on this small slip of land, except three young lads belonging to the *Cato*, who were drowned. ‘ One of these poor boys, who, in three or four voyages he had before made, had been each time shipwrecked, had bewailed himself through the night as the *Jonas* who carried misfortune wherever he went. He launched himself upon a spar with his captain, but lost his hold in the breakers, and was not seen afterwards.’

It is well worthy of remark, in this detail, that the ships endeavoured to tack under circumstances which rendered their succeeding in that manœuvre very doubtful. In sudden alarms of danger from unexpectedly falling in with land or breakers, the first idea that generally occurs is to endeavour to weather the danger. With this view, the ships hauled on a
wind

wind with the intention to tack : the immediate effect of which was that they ran farther into the danger ; and the final consequence, that, missing stays, two of the ships were cast ashore. As the wind blew fresh, was well aft, and they were sailing with the yards nearly square, it should appear that their best chance for escaping the danger would have been by endeavouring to wear round before the wind to the other tack, the performance of which in such circumstances does not require much space. The Bridgewater, it is seen, when in her sailing station, was a full half mile to windward of the other ships, and therefore on board of her there need not have been any doubt of having good room to wear round : yet it is probable that she tried to tack and missed stays before she wore, which may account for her being brought down so near on the Cato.

When searching for something to make a fire on the first night after the people reached land, a spar and a piece of timber, much worm-eaten, were found and burnt. Captain Flinders did not see this wood : but the master of the Porpoise, who examined it, judged the piece of timber to have been part of the sternpost of a ship of about 400 tons burthen. ‘ I thought,’ says Captain F., ‘ it might probably have belonged to La Boussole, or L’Astrolabe.’

The land on which the ships were lost, and the crews escaped, they named *Wreck Reef*. Most fortunately, provisions were obtained from the wrecks sufficient to subsist them during some weeks : but the boats which had been saved were not equal to embarking more than a fourth part of their number. It was, therefore, on a consultation, determined to dispatch one boat without delay to Port Jackson to demand assistance ; and at the end of a week, Captain Flinders, with the commander of the Cato, and a chosen boat’s crew, departed in a six-oared cutter for that port, where they arrived in 13 days. Six weeks, however, elapsed before he could return to the reef, which he then re-visited with a ship and two schooners, to the no small joy of the people who had been left there. They were speedily embarked, and on the 11th of October they quitted Wreck Reef. The ship then proceeded on her voyage to China, whither she was bound ; one of the schooners returned to Port Jackson ; and in the other, which was of only 29 tons burthen, named the *Cumberland*, Captain Flinders embarked with his charts and journals, and bent his course to proceed by Torres’ Strait and the Cape of Good Hope to England.

It unfortunately happened, in the homeward navigation, that Captain Flinders found it necessary to touch at the island Mauritius, then in possession of the French. He had left
England

England during a time of peace with France : but that peace, as we all remember, was of short continuance ; and war had again broken out between the two countries, intelligence of which had reached Mauritius before it came to the colony at New South Wales. Not apprized, therefore, of such an event, Captain F., in the middle of December, 1803, arrived at the Mauritius in the Cumberland schooner, and anchored in a small reef-harbour called the *Baye du Cap*, where he was then first informed of the war. ‘ My passport from the French government,’ he says, ‘ seemed to be solely for the Investigator, and without provision for any other vessel in which the loss of the ship, or her incapacity to pursue her voyage, might oblige me to embark. The intention, no doubt, was to protect the voyage generally, and not the Investigator in particular ; but it appeared to me that if the governor of Mauritius should adhere to the letter of the passport, and disregard the intention, he might seize the Cumberland as a prize.’ The commanding officer of the troops at the *Baye du Cap*, however, on examining Captain Flinders’s passport and commission, manifested no intention to detain him, but sent express for instructions ; and on the next day he received an order to permit the schooner to depart. After this, Captain F. could see no occasion to apprehend danger of detention ; and, as the repairs wanting to the schooner could be better performed at Port Louis, the principal port in Mauritius, than at *Baye du Cap*, he requested to have a pilot to conduct his vessel thither, which was accorded, and on the afternoon of the 17th the schooner was anchored in Port Louis. On that same evening, by order of the governor, (General de Caen,) Captain Flinders’s charts, journals, and papers, were seized, and taken on shore to be examined ; and he was informed that he was to consider himself as a prisoner till the examination was made. Thus commenced a captivity which it was his hard fate to endure till the middle of 1810, a term of nearly seven years.

Among the causes which have been supposed to have produced this treatment, one is that something of personal incivility, begun by the French General, and resented and retorted by the English Captain, passed between them. Another cause, which has been already noticed, is the desire of establishing a claim for the French nation of prior discovery of the south coast of New Holland, westward of Bass’s Strait. How far Governor de Caen might have been influenced by either or both of these motives, are points on which we forbear to give an opinion. A third cause may reasonably be supposed to have had effect, which it would be uncandid to pass over in silence ; and that is, the danger which might result to the colony

colony from setting at liberty a person of quick observation, who was a good surveyor, and had come to Mauritius with acknowledged curiosity to learn the state of the colony. This cause, Captain F. himself remarks, was of a nature to increase with the continuance of his detention; till 'at length,' he says, 'there existed in the island only one conjecture on this head; that from having been allowed a degree of liberty nearly two years, I had acquired a knowledge of the country which made it unsafe to permit my departure.' At the end of his imprisonment, he was of opinion that General De Caen was reconciled to releasing him by a very extraordinary motive; a hope that it would promote an attack on the island by the British.

'General De Caen saw his former companions becoming counts, dukes, and marshals of the empire, whilst he remained an untitled general of division; he and his officers, as one of them told me, then felt themselves little better circumstanced than myself,—than prisoners in an almost forgotten speck of the globe, with their promotion suspended. Rumours of a premeditated attack at length reached the island, which it was said the Captain-general heard with pleasure; and it was attributed to the prospect of making military levies on the inhabitants, and increasing his authority by the proclamation of martial law; but, if I mistake not, the General's pleasure arose from more extended views and a more permanent source. If the island were attacked, and he could repulse the English forces, distinction would follow; if unsuccessful, a capitulation would restore him to France and the career of advancement. An attack was therefore desirable; and as the Captain-general probably imagined that an officer who had been six years a prisoner, and whose liberty had been so often requested by the different authorities in India, would not only be anxious to forward it with all his might, but that his representations would be attended to, the pretexts before alleged for my imprisonment and the answer from France were waved; and after passing six weeks in the town of Port Louis and five on board a ship in the harbour, from which I had before been debarred, he suffered me to depart in a cartel bound to the place where the attack was publicly said to be in meditation.'

The charts made by Captain Flinders, of the coasts surveyed by him, bear all the marks of the most devoted attention to accuracy; and the astronomical observations for determining the longitudes were all re-computed after his arrival in England, in consequence of the moon's place having been more correctly calculated than in the tables which were in use when he departed on his voyage. In his charts, he has marked the track of the ship in which he surveyed, with the direction and strength of the wind and currents in different parts, the stations at which bearings were taken, and those of which the situations were settled by astronomical observations. The general chart (Plate No. 1.) merits to be particularized as a specimen of hydrographical

phical neatness. — An Appendix is subjoined to each volume. Besides some short tables of observations, that which occurs in the second volume contains a paper by Captain Flinders on the errors of sea-compasses which proceed from causes of attraction within the ship; and a Memoir of 80 pages, by Robert Brown, Esq. F.R.S. the librarian of the Linnean Society, on the Botany of *Terra Australis*; appertaining to which are ten plates in the atlas to the voyage. — The views accompanying the narrative are engraved from drawings taken by Mr. W. Westall. They possess great delicacy, both the designs and the engravings being picturesque representations of nature: but, except in two or three of the plates, the artist has left us to wish that he had directed his choice of subjects to such as would have conveyed more new information.

To the above named Memoir by Mr. Brown, who was naturalist to the voyage, it is incumbent on us to pay detailed attention; some of his remarks being the most important documents in that delightful science which have appeared since the publication of his *Prodromus*. We shall therefore give a copious analysis of them; more especially as every botanist who is poor must regret that only a very few copies of this Appendix have been printed separately, to give away.

In treating of the principal land only, Mr. Brown employs its generally received name of New Holland. The first part of it which he examined was the south coast, and he remained three weeks at King George's Sound, in the most favourable season of the year for his pursuits; so that, exclusive of Cryptogamous plants, nearly 500 species were collected chiefly on its shores, or within a few miles of the sea. At the second anchorage of the Investigator in Lucky Bay, about four degrees to the east of King George's Sound, during so short a period as three days, he added 100 more species to his herbarium. The remaining parts of the south coast and its adjacent islands were much more barren, producing only 200 additional species; which may no doubt partly be attributed to the advanced season of the year. Of the east coast, scarcely any part beyond the Tropic was examined by Mr. Brown; his first landing, after he left Port Jackson, being at Sandy Cape, in about 25° south latitude: but thence down to 21° south latitude he had many opportunities of collecting plants. On the north coast, he landed on one of the Prince of Wales's isles, named Good's Island, after Mr. Peter Good, the botanical gardener, a zealous worthy man; who, soon after his return to Port Jackson in June 1803, fell a sacrifice to the dysentery, regretted by all. Several other islands on this coast, the shores of Melville Bay, Caledon Bay, and a small part of
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Arnhem Bay, were likewise examined. During the rest of Mr. B.'s stay in *Terra Australis*, he made himself fully acquainted with the plants in the colony of Port Jackson: he also visited the north and south extremities of Van Diemen's island, remaining several months in the vicinity of the river Derwent; and he repeatedly landed on Bent's island, in Bass's Strait.

The herbarium thus formed contains nearly 3900 species; and with others collected by Sir Joseph Banks, Mr. David Nelson, Mr. Archibald Menzies, Colonel Paterson, Mr. David Burton, and Mr. George Caley, a very few brought from Shark's bay by the celebrated navigator Dampier, and some others discovered by Monsieur Leschenault, a most liberal French botanist, the flora of *Terra Australis* already consists of about 4200 species. Of these, about half have been collected in a parallel between 33 and 35° south latitude, which Mr. Brown therefore calls the principal parallel; and 2900 are Dicotyledonous, 860 Monocotyledonous, and 400 Acotyledonous, referring *Filices* to the last class. — Those groupes of plants which are called Natural Orders are next treated; the author remarking that a methodical and at the same time a natural arrangement of them may be at present impracticable, but that it might facilitate its future attainment if botanists would endeavour to combine these orders into classes equally natural. In the present work, Mr. Brown reverses the series which he had adopted in his *Prodromus*, beginning with

MALVACEÆ. These plants, as he observes, constitute a class rather than an order, including *Malvaceæ*, *Sterculiaceæ*, *Cblenaceæ*, *Tiliaceæ*, and another order now first proposed with the name of *Buttneriaceæ*. Of *Malvaceæ*, the *Herbæ emollientes* of antient botanists, more than 50 species have been seen in *Terra Australis*, but chiefly within the Tropic.

BUTTNERIACEÆ. The Australian portion of this order consists of *Abroma*, *Commersonia*, and several unpublished genera; besides *Lasiopetalum*, which had been referred by Sir James Edward Smith in the Linnean Transactions to *Ericææ*, and by *Ventenat* in the *Jardin de Malmaison* to *Rhamnææ*.

DILLENIACEÆ. This order, first proposed by Mr. Salisbury in the *Paradisus Londinensis*, contains, besides the genera there mentioned, *Tetracera*, *Pleurandra*, *Curatella*, *Hemistemma*, and an unpublished genus remarkable for its flat leafless stems. It is more abundant in *Terra Australis* than in any other part of the world.

PITTOSPOREÆ. The genera of *Pittosperum*, *Bursaria*, *Billardiera*, and some others of *Terra Australis* not yet published,

lished, constitute this order. *Pittosporum* has a very wide range in other countries, species of it having been found in New Zealand, Norfolk Island, the Society and Sandwich Isles, the Moluccas, China, Japan, and even in the Island of Madeira. To these places may also be added the coast of Guinea.

POLYGALEÆ. Mr. Brown makes many valuable remarks on this order, containing, besides *Polygala*, *Securidaca*, *Krameria*, *Monnina*, *Salomonina*, *Comesperma*, and several unpublished genera. Its essential characters are derived from the irregular hypogynous petals, connected by the cohering filaments, with simple antheræ bursting only at the top.

TREMANDREÆ:—a small order, hitherto consisting of *Tetratheca*, and an unpublished genus, which Mr. Brown calls *Tremandra*. It is nearly related to *Polygalea*, but differs in having regular flowers, with two 4-locular anthers, besides other characters. We think that he is perfectly right in separating this order; and we have no hesitation in adding that, as a genus may consist of a single species, so an order, nay even a class, may consist of a single genus. The differences stamped on a plant by the Great Creator of the universe are imperative to a truly philosophical botanist; however deeply he may regret that, for the sake of human convenience, he cannot combine the vegetables which he examines, into more equal portions.

DIOSMEÆ. These plants are the *Rutaceæ* of Jussieu; and we cannot agree with the author in changing the name of the order, more especially as the genus *Diosma* must be, and indeed already is, divided into several more. *Fagara*, *Zanthoxylon*, *Melicope*, *Jambolifera*, *Euodia*, *Pilocarpus*, *Cusparia*, *Ticorea*, and *Galipea*, belong to it. Mr. B. likewise thinks that *Monnieria*, if not of the same order, is of the same natural class. Nearly 70 species have been observed in *Terra Australis*, nearly all of which are referable to *Boronia*, *Correa*, *Eriostemon*, *Zieria*, and *Phebalium*: but the most remarkable genus in the order is figured in Dampier's Voyage, Vol. iii. p. 110. p. 3. f. 3.; and Mr. Brown calls it *Diplolena*, from its double involucre containing many decandrous flowers.

MYRTACEÆ. More than 200 species of this order have been discovered in *Terra Australis*, half of which are *Eucalypti*. Several of these are trees of enormous dimensions; *Eucalyptus Globulus*, and another species peculiar to Van Diemen's island, not unfrequently attaining the height of 150 feet, with a girth near their base of from 25 to 40 feet. Next to this genus, *Melaleuca* and *Leptospermum* contain the greatest number of species.

COMBRETACEÆ. This order has been fully described in Mr. Brown's *Prodromus*.

CUNONIACEÆ:

CUNONIACEÆ:—an order nearly allied to *Saxifrageæ*, from which it differs more in habit than in characters. *Weinmannia*, *Cunonia*, *Ceratopetalum*, *Calycomis*, (*Callicoma* of the Botanist's Repository,) and *Codia*, must be referred to it; likewise *Bauera*, but in a separate section of *stamina numero indefinita*, as already hinted by Mr. Salisbury in the Annals of Botany.

RHIZOPHOREÆ. *Rhizophora*, *Bruguiera*, and *Carallia*, though of the same natural class with *Cunoniaceæ*, differ from that order in having no albumen, and greater evolution of their embryo.

HALORAGÆ. A very necessary order is here proposed, of *Proserpinaca*, *Myriophyllum*, *Serpicula*, *Hippuris*, *Haloragis*, and *Genocarpus*. To these Mr. Brown adds *Callitriche*; regarding what others have denominated petals as more analogous to the bractes of *Myriophyllum* and *Serpicula*.

LEGUMINOSÆ. All botanists coincide in thinking that these plants constitute a great natural class, which the author at present divides into three orders, *Mimoseæ*, *Cesalpineseæ*, (*Lomentaceæ* of Linne,) and *Papilionaceæ*.

MIMOSEÆ, consisting of the immortal Tournefort's genera of *Acacia*, *Inga*, and *Mimosa*, from which *Schrankia* and *Desmanthus* have been lately separated by Willdenow, requires still farther subdivision. No genus in this order is more distinct than that which is named *Anneslia* in the *Paradisus Londinensis*, which has large scarlet flowers, filaments inserted in a saucer-shaped nectarium lining the bottom of the corolla, a cap-shaped stigma, and compressed pod with thickened margins. *Adenanthera* and *Prosopis* must also be added to this order, which is easily distinguished by the hypogynous insertion and valvular æstivation of its regular corolla.

CESALPINEÆ comprehend all the leguminose genera, having what Jussieu calls perigynous stamina, an irregular corolla with imbricated æstivation, and a straight embryo; from which last character, *Arachis*, and *Cercis*, the well known *Arbor Jude*, are placed in this order.

PAPILIONACEÆ. This order may be divided into several natural sections; and, without any violence to natural affinities, into two with connected and distinct filaments; the increased proportion of the latter forming a striking peculiarity in the vegetation of New Holland. Among its genera with connected filaments are *Platylobium*, *Bossiaea*, *Hovea*, *Scottia*, and *Kennedia*.

ATHEROSPERMEÆ:—a small order, very judiciously separated from *Monimieæ*, as its genera differ not only in the insertion of the seed and texture of the albumen, but in having anthers of *Laurineæ*, near which order we should be inclined to place it in a natural series.

RHAMNEÆ.

RHAMNEÆ. In Jussieu's *Genera Plantarum*, these plants form a class rather than an order. The true *Rhamnea* are limited by the author to those genera which have a valvular æstivation of the calyx cohering with the ovarium, one stamen placed between each lacinia of the calyx, an erect ovulum in each cell, and petals, if present, inserted behind the stamina. With these characters, *Rhamnus*, *Ziziphus*, *Paliurus*, *Ceanothus*, *Pomaderris*, *Colletia*, *Cryptandra*, *Phyllica*, *Gouania*, *Ventilago*, and, probably, *Hovenia*, correspond.

CELASTRINÆ. Most of the genera in Jussieu's first and second sections of *Rhamni* belong to this order, which differs from the former in having stamina inserted between and not before the petals, an ovarium not cohering with the calyx, and seeds (at least in the capsular fruits) arillated. It is nearly allied to *Hippocraticeæ*.

STACKHOUSEÆ. *Stackhousia*, and an unpublished genus differing chiefly in fruit, form a small order, which may be distinguished from *Celastrinæ* by their monophyllous and ventricose calyx, petals inserted near the top of the calyx, fruit 3-5-coccus, and the cocci not valvular.

EUPHORBIACEÆ:—an extensive order in *Terra Australis*, about 100 species having been seen there, and most of them within the Tropic. Mr. Brown remarks that the structure of the different parts of the flower in *Euphorbia* does not give a correct idea of the same parts in other genera of the order; and probably no botanist, except Jussieu, has understood them truly. No doubt is now left that what Linné called calyx and corolla in *Euphorbia* is an involucre, containing male monandrous flowers round a single female, and without any perianthium; the portion below the joint being the foot-stalk, and that which is above it being the true filament. This statement is confirmed by an unpublished genus of *Terra Australis*, very similar to *Euphorbia*, but which has an obvious perianthium at the joint, regularly divided into lobes.

UMBELLIFERÆ. This order is chiefly European: nevertheless, in *Terra Australis*, it consists of nearly 50 species. Of these, *Eriocalia* differs from all the others in having a single ovulum in the unimpregnated seed-vessel; and a second genus, which the author calls *Leucolana*, is singular for the apparent differences of inflorescence among its species, one having a compound, many-flowered umbel, which in another is reduced to a single flower.

COMPOSITÆ. About 300 species of this vast natural class are at present known in *Terra Australis*, chiefly of the order *Corymbifera*, not more than 10 species being referable to *Cichoraceæ* and *Cinarosephale*. All *Compositæ*, the learned author observes,

observes, agree in two characters, which, taken together, assist in determining the limits of the class: the first is their valvular æstivation: the second he believes not to have been previously noticed, and it consists in the disposition of the nerves; which, though generally equal in-number to the divisions of the corolla, instead of running up their middle, at the top of the tube divide into two equal branches parallel to the margins of the adjacent laminae. This disposition of the nerves confirms the affinity of *Ambrosia* and *Xanthium* to *Compositæ*, and that of *Brunonia* to *Lobelia*.

GOODENOVIAE. This order has been separated by Mr. Brown from *Lobelia*, which, to our astonishment, he leaves in *Campanulaceæ*, on account of the indusium of the stigma being entire, or two-lobed: but Jussieu and Richard do not accede to this separation, joining it to *Lobelia*. He still retains the order for three reasons: first, in *Goodenovia*, the deeper fissure of the corolla is on its upper side, but in *Lobelia* on its lower side, though by the twisting of the peduncle it is likewise commonly turned to the upper side. Secondly, in *Goodenovia*, the greater part of the tube is formed by the cohesion of five laciniae, and *Cyphia* is actually 5-petalous: but this character is proved to be of no importance whatever by *Michauxia* in *Campanulaceæ*. Indeed, in most of the *Lobelia* which we have dissected, the tube is evidently formed by the cohesion of five laciniae; and, in a genus from South America, the cohesion is so imperfect as to leave open slits in the middle of the tube. Thirdly, in *Goodenovia*, the stigma is hardly visible when the anthers burst, and certainly not capable of receiving impregnation from the pollen of its own flower: but, as in many *Lobelia* the stigma is never evolved till long after the anthers of its own flower have shed their pollen, this character also fails. Moreover, a stronger argument than any yet mentioned for rejecting *Goodenovia* appears to us to be afforded by several species of *Goodenia* itself, especially *grandiflora*; in which the indusium, though entire at the base, is evidently fringed higher up, as in *Lobelia*.

STYLIDÆ. An order consisting of *Stylidium*, *Levenhookia*, and *Forstera*, separated from *Campanulaceæ* on account of its reduced number of stamina, and their remarkable cohesion with the style, as well as the imbricated æstivation of the corolla. The French botanists, more especially Jussieu, Richard, and Labillardiere, have been completely mistaken respecting the real stigma of this order; which is in the centre of the anthers, and very analogous to that of *Lobelia*.

RUBIACEÆ. This large class, rather than order, is not very numerous in *Terra Australis*; and the most remarkable genera

of it in that country are *Opercularia* and *Pomax*, which Jussieu is disposed to separate as an order, on account of their single-seeded ovarium.

APQCYNEÆ :—an order nearly related to *Rubiaceæ* and *Gentianeæ*; among the true genera of which *Alyxia* is the most singular, its albumen and embryo resembling those of *Annonaceæ*.

ASCLEPIADEÆ. This well known order has been greatly illustrated by the author in a separate dissertation published in the Wernerian Transactions, and it differs from *Apocineæ* solely in the structure of its genitalia: there are not many species of it in New Holland.

EPACRIDEÆ. The abundance of this order, on the contrary, constitutes one of the peculiarities in the vegetation of *Terra Australis*; about 140 species having been observed, chiefly in the principal parallel. These, in Mr. Brown's *Prodromus*, are judiciously divided into many genera.

LABIATÆ and **VERBENACEÆ** appear to the author to form two orders gradually passing into each other. *Chloanthes*, he observes, with the fruit of *Verbenaceæ*, has the habit of *Labiata*; and in this last order *Westringia* and *Prostanthera* are genera particularly worthy of notice.

MYOPORINÆ. This small order, to which *Bontia* must be referred, is distinguished from *Verbenaceæ* by the presence of albumen in the ripe seed, and by the direction of the embryo.

PROTEACEÆ. More than 400 species of this order are at present known, and half of them are natives of *Terra Australis*, growing mostly in the principal parallel: but not one of these has been observed in any other part of the world, and even there no species is common to the east and west coasts.

SANTALACEÆ. One of the most essential characters of this order consists in its uni-locular ovarium, containing a determinate number of ovula, pendulous from the top of a central receptacle. *Exocarpus* and *Antbobolus*, added to this order by Mr. Brown, are singular in having *germen superum*.

CASUARINEÆ :—a small order, almost peculiar to *Terra Australis*, only two species being found out of it. In the male flowers of all the species yet examined, is an envelope of four valves: but, as the two lateral valves cover the others in the unexpanded state, they are probably bractes. The spiral vessels in the fruit are very curious, and accurately described.

CONIFERÆ. In the late essays of Mirbel and Schoubert, that part of the female fructification which is described by Mr. Salisbury as a pericarpium, terminated by a stigma, is regarded by them as a peculiar organ which they call cupula, and they think that it is more analogous to an involucre; the

the real stigma they believe to be placed within this cupula ; and from an examination of *Podocarpus*, and of *Agathis*, (the *Pinus Dammara* of Lambert,) Mr. Brown is of opinion that impregnation really takes place in the manner which they describe. That which Mr. Salisbury, therefore, in a paper read to the Linnean Society in June 1803, and which also Schkuhr in the third volume of his *Handbuch* published in the same year, took for stigma, being in *Pinus* not unlike the stigma of *Corylus*, and in *Larix* resembling a bird's nest in miniature, will be more analagous to the fringed indusium of *Lobelia*.

ORCHIDÆ. The Australian species of this vast order amount already to 120 in number, but some of them are of very rare occurrence, and none of them very abundant.

ASPHODELEÆ. The greater part of Jussieu's *Asphodelea* and *Asparagea* are here joined together by the author ; who owns that he has probably attached too much importance to the black crust of the seed in combining genera so very dissimilar as *Anthericum*, *Xanthorrhæa*, and *Astelia*. *Hypoxis* and *Curculigo* he now separates into an order.

PALMÆ. Only six species have been seen in New Holland.

JUNCEÆ. We are now in possession of so many links connecting the regular Monocotyledonous flowers, the author tells us, that, in attempting to define several of them, he has been obliged to have recourse to differences of secondary importance : but we think it is of little consequence what the character is, if it prove constant, and connect plants which follow each other in a natural series. On this head, the Linnean canon respecting genera is equally applicable to orders ; *characterem fluere e ordine, non ordinem e caractere*. *Philydrum*, placed here at present, is probably *sui ordinis*, and will in our opinion come nearer to *Commelinea*.

RESTIACEÆ :—an order almost confined to the Cape of Good Hope and *Terra Australis*. It differs from *Juncea* in having a lenticular embryo placed at the extremity of the seed opposite to the umbilicus.

CYPERACEÆ. More than 200 species of this order have been found in *Terra Australis* : they are very nearly related to *Restiaceæ* : but the Perianthium is frequently wanting, or merely setaceous.

GRAMINEÆ. This order is as numerous as the last in *Terra Australis*, and is divided by Mr. Brown into two sections. 1st, *Paniceæ*, containing *Ischemum*, *Holcus*, *Andropogon*, *Anthistiria*, *Saccharum*, *Cenchrus*, *Isachne*, *Panicum*, *Paspalum*, *Reimaria*, *Anthenantia*, *Monachne*, *Lappago*, and several other genera : its essential character consists in having a locusta of two flowers, the lower of which is always imperfect, being either male or neuter,

neuter, and often reduced to a single valve: the maximum of this section is within the Tropics. 2dly, *Peaceæ*, of which 115 species have been seen in *Terra Australis*; their locustæ consists of one, two, or many flowers; and in the biflorous genera the lower flower is always perfect, contrary to those of *Paniceæ*. In some of the multiflorous genera, however, the lower flower is even in this section imperfect.

FILICES. Willdenow has described nearly 1000 species of this order; and that small speck of earth, Norfolk Island, produces as many as the island of Great Britain. The *Australasian* ferns, amounting to 100 in number of species, occur only, like all the others, where shade and moisture are found. For some important observations respecting *Asplenium*, we must refer our readers to the work itself.

A list of plants, natives both of Europe and of *Terra Australis*, follows; among which are our English herbs *Potentilla Anserina*, *Aphanes Arvensis*, *Lythrum Salicaria*, *Hydrocotyle Vulgaris*, *Sonchus Oleraceus*, *Verbena Officinalis*, *Calystegia Sepium*, (*Convolvulus* of Curtis, but most unquestionably not a *Convolvulus*,) *Luzula Campestris*, and *Bryum Argenteum*. To have shaken hands with these old friends, after so long a voyage, would have delighted us as much as the formation of any new acquaintances.

Very complete descriptions, and incomparable figures, (drawn by Mr. Ferdinand Bauer,) of the following plants, finish the work.

FLINDERSIA AUSTRALIS, so named in honour of the able and active commander of the expedition, now, alas! no more. It is a tree of moderate size, belonging to the order of *Cedreles*, and remarkable for its leaves, dotted with pellucid glands, as well as for the moveable dissepiments of its fruit.

EUPOMATIA LAURINA:—a genus found in the thickets at Port Jackson, of the order *Annonaceæ*, but differing in the perigynous insertion of its stamina, as well as in its operculum. The most singular character of this genus, however, consists in its barren, petal-like stamina; which cut off all communication between the antheræ and stigmata, and which communication appears to be restored by insects eating away these barren, petal-like stamina. It is not easy to conceive, Mr. Brown adds, any other mode of exposing the stigmata to the influence of the antheræ.

EUDESMIA TETRAGONA:—a genus found in flower and fruit near Lucky Bay, January 1802, the midsummer of that place. It differs from *Eucalyptus* only in having a distinctly toothed calyx, striated operculum, and filaments in bundles.

CEPHALOTUS FOLLICULARIS. We regard this as the brightest botanical gem of the voyage, and rejoice to add that it was probably first discovered by Mr. Robert Brown; who found it only just beginning to flower about the end of December 1801, a few days before the ship left Princess Royal Harbour in King George's Sound, near the shores of which it grows in marshy ground. It has been referred to *Rosaceæ* by Labillardiere, who never mentions this most curious plant in the history of his voyage; we therefore suppose that the figure which he has published has been made from a dried specimen collected by M. Leschenault. We doubt its affinity to *Rosaceæ*; a point which cannot be settled without its fruit, which has not yet been collected. This plant, besides its natural leaves, has several petioles intermixed, terminating in pitcher-shaped reservoirs, somewhat like those of *Nepenthes*, which were generally half filled with a watery fluid; and a great number of ants were often found drowned in it. This fluid, which had a slightly sweet taste, Mr. Brown thinks may possibly be a secretion of the pitcher itself, but more probably consists of rain-water received and preserved in it; the lid of the pitcher being found either accurately closing its mouth, or having an erect position, so as to leave the mouth quite open. The name of *Cephalotus* is very insignificant for so strange a plant, being derived from a character in its anthers which is common to thousands of other anthers: that of *Myrmiphyllax* would have been more appropriate.

ANTIARIS MACROPHYLLA:—a small tree or shrub, found in barren stony places on the shores of the Company's Isles, adjacent to Arnhem's Land, bearing both flowers and ripe fruit in February 1803. It belongs to *Urticææ*, and is a congener of the famous *Upas* poison-tree of Java, about which so many falsehoods have been told, but which has been so satisfactorily described and figured by M. Leschenault in the 16th volume of the *Annales du Muséum*, p. 478. f. 22.

FRANKLANDIA FUCIFOLIA:—a genus in the natural order of *Proteaceæ*, found in flower and fruit near King George's Sound, in December 1801, and so named after Sir Thomas Frankland, Bart.

SYNAPHEA DILATATA:—another genus of the same order, and collected at the same place and time with the last: it is remarkable for the cohesion of the barren filament with the stigma, and for the structure and connection of the anthers.

DASYPOGON BROMELIIFOLIUS:—observed in fruit and flower near King George's Sound, in December 1801, and referred by the author to the order of *Juncææ*.

CALECTASIA CYANEA :—a much more beautiful plant than the last, and of the same order and country, where it ornaments the barren hills near the shore with its violet-coloured blossoms.

CORYSANTHES FIMBRIATA :—a curious *Orchideous* genus, found under rocks in shady places, near Port Jackson.

AZOLLA PINNATA :—a cryptogamous genus of the order *Masciliaceæ*, common in the ponds near Port Jackson, and which can be understood only by the magnified figure accompanying the description.

ART. VII. *Tragedies*, by William Sotheby, Esq. The Death of Daruley. Ivan. Zamorin and Zama. The Confession. Orestes. 8vo. pp. 361. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1814.

IT does not require any very great critical sagacity to foresee that the time is far from distant, at which the natural reaction of human opinions in all matters of a fluctuating kind will evince itself in our literary taste. When we class such a taste among the things subject to “chance and change,” we would be understood to mean that the love of variety, which is perhaps the essential spring of many minds, will often for a season give exclusive popularity to some preposterous deviation from the established principles of right and of wrong in composition; will even worship the sudden display of genius that is less strikingly disfigured by such deviations; and, during that season, will forget all that it once admired in chaster and more correct models. The three modern schools of the *Romantic*, the *Gloomy*, and the *Familiar*, in poetry, (which perhaps may be represented with sufficient accuracy for our present purpose by the foregoing epithets,) are doubtless each headed by individuals of powerful abilities and of cultivated minds. We have so often discussed their respective merits and defects, that we have no intention of again dwelling on the exhausted subject: but it is necessary for us, in order to complete our object in these introductory remarks, to observe that, as the compositions of each of these individuals are confessedly dimmed in their brightness and weakened in their strength by numerous blemishes and deficiencies, it is too much to expect from human popularity of any kind that theirs will last, *at its height*, much longer; and, indeed, we are greatly deceived if the seeds of that *diminution* which it carries within itself do not already begin to manifest their unseemly produce. When matters have proceeded in this their natural order for a little longer period, may we not venture to predict that

that the re-action just mentioned will cause a revived fondness for our formerly established classical models; and that proportionate (or, perhaps, in the excess of the vibrations constantly performing by the pendulum of Taste, *disproportionate*) amends will be made for their temporary degradation or neglect?

Should this not very hazardous prediction be fulfilled, few of our writers in any of the departments of the belles lettres will profit more from its accomplishment than the nervous, elegant, and highly poetical translator of the *Georgics*, and of the wandering but enchanting tale of *Oberon*. That the reputation of Mr. Sotheby has not only suffered from the overwhelming popularity of less classical writers, but has also been deteriorated by his own less successful original attempts, is unfortunately too true: but we attribute this effect in the one case to the unlucky choice of a sacred subject; and in the other to the unworthy selection of a humbler model than he had been accustomed to propose to himself for imitation or for rivalry. Much, however, of the present volume we consider as calculated to replace him on the eminence to which he was intitled at his first appearance; and, while the unreasonable complaint of a dearth in dramatic genius continues, we think that any defender of our native talents would be justified in referring to several of these plays as not only affording high and rational entertainment in the closet, but as susceptible, with very slight alterations, of successful adaptation to the stage.

'The Death of Darnley' is a fine spirited poem; less fitted, perhaps, for representation than perusal, but doing ample justice to the characters of the story. Mary is depicted, as her ample and satisfactory vindication has at length represented her, royal and dignified in mind, though she was persecuted and degraded in estate; the commanding object of love and admiration, as well as the endearing claimant on every manly and noble sensation of pity and of honour. Darnley is but a sketch, yet true to history and to life. Bothwell also is too slightly delineated for a perfect picture; and, in a word, much of this play, as well as of the others in general, rather bears the appearance of the powerful *study* of a master than of the finished piece for which that study was originally intended. To Rizzio is given a prominence for which we are not aware that the poet can plead any real authority: but it adds to the effect of the piece to throw this generosity and even greatness about his character, and it is well imagined.

The play of 'Ivan' is extremely interesting. It has faults, as have all its companions, in occasional passages; faults even

of taste, which are the rarest sins of the present writer, and some of fable and character: but they are not obvious, nor of sufficient consequence to provoke that lengthened discussion which could alone make them generally understood. We should rejoice to be able to extract the scene between the deposed and injured Ivan (the rightful Emperor of Russia) and the usurper Elizabeth: it is in the genuine strain of antient English poetry; and Rowe or Otway might have owned it with satisfaction: but we reserve our limits for something which we like still better; although we are by no means certain that our preference would universally be sanctioned as judicious.

'Zamorin and Zama,' in which we are again introduced to Pizarro and his abandoned associates, has several animated scenes, and abounds in detached passages of energy and beauty: yet, on the whole, we are not so well pleased with it as with several of the others; and indeed, with the exception of *Orestes*, we prefer any of the rest to this Peruvian drama. As to *Orestes*, we could wish that it were away from the collection. In the first place, we are tired with the subject, which was never, we conceive, successfully treated, except by the original occupier of the fable; and, secondly, we think, there is rather a lavish exhibition of the wonderful in the six exclamations of "Vengeance" (three each time) from the tomb of Agamemnon.

We hasten to our favourite portion of the volume; and we envy not the head that can coldly criticize, or the heart that refuses to feel, the deeply pathetic scenes of 'The Confession.' We are indeed so well assured that all readers of real taste will delight in this affecting play, that we shall not lessen their curiosity, and consequently their pleasure, by any abstract of its story: but, merely telling them that the principal characters in the subjoined extracts are a husband and a wife, re-united in the most dangerous circumstances after a long separation, and a poor but lovely and afflicted girl, whose wrongs are nobly soothed by her who suffered most acutely from them, we shall proceed to excite their interest in the tragic story:

'*Agnes.* In what hast thou offended?

'*Alfonso.* [*to himself.*]

I must speak.

The threaten'd torments of the world to come,

Where sinners meet their doom, are center'd here.

'*Agnes.* In what hast thou offended?

'*Alf.*

I have left

The path where Virtue led me: I have strown

In the smooth vale of innocence and peace,

Rank baleful seed: and I have pluck'd its fruit

That leaves a scar and blister on the soul,

When

When all of earth sinks to its native dust.

You know me now. Away—

‘ *Agnes.*

I know none such.

‘ *Alf.* But you do know my voice.

‘ *Agnes.*

Lift up thy cowl:

Thy features may instruct me.

‘ *Alf.*

Ask not that.

You'll turn away in horror.

‘ *Agnes.*

If thy guilt

Aught touches me, this act of rescu'd life

Obliterates all trace of past offence.

Lift up thy cowl.

[*He lifts it up reluctantly.*

Oh Heav'n! — I know thee not.

Nay — go not hence.

‘ *Alf.*

I would not shock thy soul —

[*To himself.*] I will not see her more. But — oh — her pardon!

I am (but do not gaze on me) I was,

In happier years, when Virtue led my steps,

Thy husband —

‘ *Agnes.* [*She recollects him, and screams.*] Thou — my husband!

Julian! Julian!

And yet — I know thee not. Thou shalt not leave me.

My arms shall hold thee. Thou art more than pardon'd,

Husband!

‘ *Alf.*

Oh sound once grateful to my soul.

But do not stain thy unpolluted lip.

Look, look not so.

‘ *Agnes.*

I cannot view on earth

One so belov'd.

‘ *Alf.*

Not with that eye of kindness.

I cannot look on thee: oh, if thine eye

Flash'd vengeful light'ning, I'd not turn away.

Thou shalt not hold me more.

‘ *Agnes.*

Am I so hateful?

‘ *Alf.* Next Heav'n, I honour thee, but ne'er shall saints

Stoop to a fiend's embrace. Why should'st thou weep?

I cannot shed a tear.

‘ *Agnes.* [*embracing him.*] Weep in these arms:

And as I clasp thee to my heart, recall

Past years of bliss, and pray'rs once heard in Heav'n,

That in each other's arms, blessing and blest,

Our life at once might close, and one the tomb

Rais'd over us, join'd in death. Husband! sore woe

Has chas'd away the vision of delight,

That o'er the innocence of untried youth

Diffus'd th' enchanted day-dream: it hath pleas'd

The Searcher of the heart, by misery's test,

To prove my soul, and, here, 'mid lonely wilds

Where none but Heav'n can witness, I invoke

His ministering host, again to grave the vow

That

That links my lot to thine. Come, on this bosom
Rest, and find peace once more.

' *Alf.*

Peace! never, never.

'Tis Virtue's heritage.

' *Agnes.*

It shall be thine.

' *Alf.* The past — the past.

' *Agnes.*

Oh be it with these tears

Eternally forgotten!

' *Alf.*

I have born

Unmov'd the shock of horror, but thy kindness
Unman's me.

Agnes, I thought not to have known once more,
The blessing of such tears.

[*He weeps.*]

' *Agnes.*

Oh thou hast groan'd

In bitterness of spirit to the storm,

That smote thee, sweeping by on icy wings,

And none has listen'd to thy woe, no voice

Spake consolation. Where, alas! was Agnes?

Ah! haply whilst thou call'd'st in anguish on me,

I, far away, unconscious of thy woe,

Pour'd unavailing sorrow on the tomb,

That clos'd not o'er thy sufferings. Now behold me

Thus at thy side, more blest to stand the storm,

And sooth thy misery, than in thoughtless years,

When the gay partner of vain joy alone

I glitter'd in thy sunshine.

' *Alf.*

Heav'n reward thee!

' *Agnes.* Heav'n hath rewarded me: once more we meet.

Oh give me all thy grief, and I will steal

Each pang away, and lull thee to repose.

These arms, amid the wilderness, shall stretch

Soft shelter o'er thee, here thy brow be pillow'd:

And ever as thou wak'st, the eye of Agnes

Shall gladden thine: till in the gradual peace

That gains upon thee, I shall taste, once more,

All bliss that earth can give.

' *Alf.* [*falling on her neck.*] Thus let me thank thee —

No — no. [*Starts back in horror.*] Guilt, guilt is on me.

' *Agnes.*

None o'er earth

Pass without stain.

' *Alf.*

No common guilt is mine.

' *Agnes.* Bow not beneath despair! I woo thee not

To luxury, and light pleasures, and the dream

Of joy departed. No. But, hand in hand,

Now let us, in affliction doubly dear,

Right onward journeying thro' the vale of woe,

Soothe and support each other. Once again

Here have we met, and never, never more,

If virtue yet have force to sway the heart,

Shall earthly pow'r divide us.

' *Alf.*

' *Alf.* Oh thou knowest not —
I cannot tell it thee.

' *Agnes.* I know it all.
Oh thou art deeply wounded: drops of blood
Stream on the snow: Come — let thy wife support thee —
Lean on me, Julian. Let us to the convent.
Oh no — not there — not there.

' *Alf.* Support me not.
There was a time — let me depart, I pray thee,
While reason yet is mine. [*more and more confused.*]

'Tis not this wound.
'Tis in my head — my heart — the fiend that tends
On evil deeds, is busy with my soul.
Angel of light! (thou art not of this earth)
Who, from the mansions of the blest, descend'st
On gracious errand to repentant sinners,
Canst thou not quell this demon? drive him hence!
I cannot long sustain this terrible coil?

' *Agnes.* Father of mercy! calm his troubled spirit!

' *Alf.* [*frantic.*] Woman! thou know'st me not. I know thee
well —

Thou art Novara's daughter.'

The ensuing short extract, from a scene between two of the minor characters in the piece, will sufficiently prepare the reader for the highly fanciful and touching passage which we shall then introduce. One of the monks is describing to the other the state of Ellen, (the third principal personage of the drama, to whom we have alluded above,) and thus continues his speech:

' 'Tis no delirium, where the fever's rage
Boils in the blood, and on the throbbing brain,
Shapes images and scenes of spectred horror:
'Tis the mild error of the sense confus'd,
That plays on cheated fancy: for she seems,
All memory of later woe effac'd,
Blissful as once ere bleak adversity
Had ruffled youth's smooth current.

' *Provost.* Such things pass
Man's narrow ken: Heav'n wills it.

' *Confessor.* Round her couch
She fashions those, who sadly minister,
'To the gay partners of her innocent sports,
Poor peasant girls, who cull in spring fresh flow'rs
To wreath their brow, and mix the mirthful dance:
And oft she calls Tortona's dame, who prays
In silence o'er her, her own happy mother,
List'ning with fond attention to the tune
That late she taught her. Me, my mournful duties
Have long familiar made with death-bed woe:

And

And I have look'd on sinners when despair
Scowl'd, as their eye glar'd fixedly upon me :
But never have I witness'd such a scene ;
It quite o'ercomes me : life and death in one
So strangely link'd, and all that's sweet and sad.
Yet—haply as we commune, holy father,
All may be chang'd, and horrid images
Usurp the mastery.

‘ *Pro.* Let us haste : our pray'rs
May chase the fiend that haunts the bed of death. [*Exeunt.*]

The scene, of which we are now about to select the principal portion, appears to us fairly deserving of being reckoned among the most beautiful and tender examples of English poetry ; and it is strange indeed to consider the exclusive spirit of that literary taste, which can pass regardless by such powerful claims on its pleased attention :

‘ *Scene the Second, an Apartment in the Convent.*

‘ *AGNES, ELLEN on a Couch, attendant Monks, &c.*

‘ *Agnes.* Hush ! rouse her not.

‘ *Ellen.* [*in a delirium.*] So — enter in, I pray you,
Strangers and all : it is but once a year
We thus make holiday. Not so — not so —
You trip it awkwardly, and mar the measure.
The pipe's not out of tune, your step lacks ear.
Oh — I have scarcely breath at once to dance
And teach the motion. [*Ellen sinks exhausted.*]

‘ *PROVOST and CONFESSOR enter.*

‘ *Pro.* [*to Agnes.*] Is all quiet with her ?

‘ *Agnes.* No — but exhausted with the play of fancy,
She peaceful sleeps.

‘ *Pro.* [*considering her.*] Quite breathless, or I err.

‘ *Agnes.* She but reposes : pray you, rouse her not.
I dread what may ensue : a shock too sudden
In painful horrors may unlodge her spirit.
I have been us'd to these fantastic moods,
Long have I watch'd her, and by tender cares
Had smooth'd her passage to eternity :
But this sad day hath all undone. Oh peace !
Her eyes unclose, and bright their eager glare.

‘ *Ellen.* Hark ! 'twas the shepherd's pipe !
Away ! away ! haste — to the green hills fly.
I will no longer, while the dog-star flames,
Doze in your sultry plains. The flat air lies
Here, here, like lead upon me : it weighs down
The soul's free wing. Haste, to the green hills, fly.
How daintily the cool breeze fans my brow,
Tangling my locks in many a mazy twine !

Climb o'er yon mountain's peak, that props up Heav'n ;
Mind not that mass of snow : so — heave it off.

' *Agnes.* Compose thyself : here, on my bosom rest.

' *Ellen.* Speak low — speak very low — only in whispers —
You know not what it is. Stranger ! that mass
Which rock-like beetles o'er you, is loose snow.
The mule-bell must not tinkle while it passes :
Its very echo bursts it.

Hail, once more,
My native land ; hail sweetest interchange
Of all that chiefly gladdens eye and ear,
Bright lakes, the pine-clad mount, and hill and dale !
Hark ! 'twas the Alpine lark that upward trill'd :
Angels may hear it now : 'tis mute to earth :
And oh that sound, most sweet at distance heard,
The hidden waterfall, that in still moon-light
Makes pleasant music to light-tripping elves.
Thou peaceful hut ! thou vine, that I have taught
To clasp the rock : and thou my summer bow'r,
Where underneath the green bough's canopy
I sat, nor wish'd for the eagle's stretch of wing,
That swept the upper world : oh never more
Will I away. On you my eye first glanc'd,
On you my dying look shall close in peace :
And there the sod shall rise that hides poor Ellen.
Pray for me — oh, I die.

' *Agnes.* A cold dew stands
On her pale brow. I ne'er saw this before.

' *Pro.* 'Tis the fore-runner of approaching death.

' *SACRISTAN enters.*

' *Sac.* [*to Agnes.*] Lady ! Alfonso now at life's last close,
Thus speaks thro' me, that he doth feel assur'd
Of Heav'nly mercy, if the death-bed blessing
Of Ellen rest upon him. Canst thou ask it ?
Ellen will not deny thee.

' *Pro.* [*bending over Ellen.*] 'Tis, I fear,
In vain — I trace — alas ! no sign of life.

' *Agnes.* [*kneels.*] Oh Heav'n ! in mercy yet awhile keep back
The stroke of death, and to herself restore her :
That one last word may breathe o'er dying Julian,
Peace and forgiveness.

' *Pro.* Heav'n has heard thy voice :
The recompence of virtue shall not fail,
While God is judge above. Her pulse faint flutters.
Hark ! that low sigh.

' *Ellen.* [*recovering.*] I pray you, call me not
From Heav'n's eternal rest ! where have I been ?
Most lov'd, most honour'd lady ! art thou near me ?
Then I shall die in peace. But — where — where am I ?

' *Agnes.* Beneath the convent roof with holy men.

' *Ellen.*

' *Ellen.* [*gazing around her.*] Thanks, holy father: a poor peasant's child
Can give no more. For thee, thou Saint on earth!
I have a gift: it is the pictur'd form
Of him, who never for one base as I am,
Should have left thee, whom only angels equal.
Where is it?

' *Agnes.* You resign'd it, gentle Ellen,
To rescue me from death.

' *Ellen.* Then, take this kiss:
And — give me thine. [*They embrace.*]

' *Agnes.* Ellen — I have a wish,
A pray'r to thee.

' *Ellen.* Oh may my spirit pass
In granting it!

' *Agnes.* We soon shall part for ever.

' *Ellen.* Not so. We meet in Heav'n.

' *Agnes.* But — there is one —
Poor Julian.

' *Ellen.* What of him?

' *Agnes.* Will he be there?
How shall he stand at the appointed day
Before the judgment-seat, if thy forgiveness
Rest not upon him?

' *Ellen.* Oh that now he heard me.
'Twere now no sin to gaze upon this face,
And hear the voice that pardons him.

' *Agnes.* And canst thou
Endure the meeting? will it not o'erpow'r thee?
He is beneath this roof. Will it not shock thee
Once more to view him? not, as once, alas,
In pride of manhood, but a contrite sinner
Chastis'd by woe: and, such as now I view thee,
Nigh unto death? yet peace at last would sooth him,
Blest by thy pardon.

' *Ellen.* Heav'n has giv'n me strength.
If he can look on Ellen, hither lead him.
Say, Heav'n is merciful. I pray, delay not:
My breath begins to fail. Be not long absent.
Oh let me, on thy breast, in blessing thee
Breathe out my spirit!

' *Agnes.* Grant me strength ye saints!

[*Agnes goes out.*]
' *Prior.* [*looking on Ellen.*] Her head reclines again. Sure, life
has left her.

' *ALFONSO led in by AGNES, and supported by the Monks.*

' *Alf.* I pray you, mock me not. Is she not dead?
Lift me, and let me gaze upon her face.

[*After long gazing on her.*]
' How calm! e'en so as when I first beheld thee.
It speaks a soul that past in peace with all:

And

And if thy placid lip has utterance lost,
That look is like a blessing.'

We have now gone through this dramatic volume; and we cannot help expressing our astonishment that none of these plays have been presented or performed at the theatres. Very slight changes indeed would render the greater number of them (according to any judgment which we can form) highly worthy of representation, and calculated to call out the strength of much stronger histrionic bodies than we possess at present. We are inclined to think that a great and popular delusion prevails on this subject; and that the real cause of dramatic talent being considered as at a low ebb among our literary men is the want of a proper company of actors to conceive and to give effect to the ideas of the poet. If we except one or two respected individuals at each house, to whom is the dramatist to look for the support of his characters? What stimulus has he to put out his strength on the delineation of the groupe that not only ought to give effect to the principal figure, but to be in itself varied and vigorous? We could dwell on this point, interesting to every lover of the fine arts, — and especially of that noblest branch of them, Dramatic Poetry, — with much delight and earnestness: but we have other claims on us at this moment, and we must hope to return to it hereafter.

It remains for us to take notice of some minor errors in these tragedies: but they will be briefly dispatched. When, in 'The Confession,' immediately before the first scene which we have quoted, Alfonso says to Agnes,

'But — but forgive me!'

the plagiarism from Jane Shore is somewhat painfully minute; and when, in the 'Orestes,' Clytemnestra thus addresses Ægisthus, who is about to return to the banquet in annual celebration of their nuptials,

————— 'Go, and if thou feast,
Avoid excess,'

we consider it as a manifest "nod" of the poet, and say nothing more about it. The concluding incident, in which Clytemnestra is made to run on the dagger of Orestes, and thus at one stroke to destroy the character of them both, is indeed a serious mistake. So too, again in 'The Confession,' where the Provost asks the Confessor in sufficiently formal language,

'What Ellen's state?'

and the latter answers, (just before the good passage which we have cited,)

'I cannot

‘ I cannot call it frenzy,
And yet she is not in her perfect mind,’

so prosaic a line must, we think, wonder to find itself in such different company.

Some other defects of this description we leave unnoticed : but we cannot quit the volume without earnestly exhorting the author to turn his whole mind to the drama ; and, by some well-concerted, patient, and vigorous effort, to redeem the character of contemporary English literature from the accusation of this one, and only this one, deficiency to which it is now exposed.

ART. VIII. *Gymnasium ; Sive Symbola Critica*. By the Rev. Alexander Crombie, LL.D. 2 Volumes. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards, Johnson and Co.

WE have rarely seen a more useful work for the Latin student than the *Gymnasium* of Dr. Crombie. It is not only abundant in learned and acute distinctions between phrases apparently similar, and words inaccurately considered as synonymous, but it illustrates a great variety of idiomatical usages in the Latin language by well chosen examples from the classics, and by exercises translated from the historians and other authors of antient Rome ; which, by being rendered back into Latin, must impart the most extensive information to the scholar in his gradual progress through the work. In so wide a compass of metaphysical discussion, and on many points which are of the nicest kind in the philosophy of grammar, doubtless various degrees of merit are displayed in the present observations : but throughout they contain much to be learnt by the younger student, and much also to refresh the memory or to improve the knowledge of the most experienced. A few extracts will amply testify the justice of that respectable character which we have here assigned to the publication before us. Among the preliminary chapters, which serve as an useful introduction to the ‘ Observations’ and ‘ Exercises,’ perhaps the most ingenious is that which relates to translation ; and, as we have remarked that the more advanced scholar may derive benefit from the perusal of these volumes as well as the mere learner, we shall endeavour, in our citations, to combine the advantage of both, which evidently has been the object of the author.

After having adduced many instances of equivalent terms in the English and Latin languages, and many of those that differ in a slight degree, even down to unlikeness and diversity, the critic continues :

‘ From

‘ From the preceding observations, it must be sufficiently manifest, that, as the combinations of ideas are as various as the moral and physical circumstances in which we are placed, and as this diversity must necessarily affect the language which we speak, giving birth to terms in one country to which there are none in any degree correspondent or none precisely equivalent in another, all translation must be in some measure imperfect, and in certain cases impracticable. Hence may appear the difficulty of the translator, whose duty it is to exhibit a correct and faithful transcript of his author. When the language which he employs fails in furnishing him with equivalent expressions, the selection of such terms, as are nearest to the sense and spirit of the original, requires no common share of critical sagacity.

‘ In connection with the principles, which we have endeavoured to explain, it may be further observed, that not only do languages differ, one from another, in regard to individual terms, but that there is also a diversity in their general character, each exhibiting the national habits and intellectual condition of the people, by whom it is spoken.

‘ Words are signs of thought; they are the exponents of our feelings, our perceptions, our ideas. They take their character, therefore, from the minds, whose sentiments they indicate. All those terms, which we employ, to denote the characters of style, strictly belong to thinking and its modes. Whatever affects the mind, or its intellectual habits, has a correspondent influence over our modes of expression. Our feelings, our sentiments, our associations, and habits of thought are, in a great degree, governed by conversation, by reading, and by the prevailing cast of mind in the people among whom we live. Hence chiefly arises national character. Similar habits of thought among a whole people lay the foundation of national style; and so necessary is the connection between them, that we may reason from our knowledge of the latter, to the character of the former, with moral certainty. There is no person conversant in the languages of the Greeks and Romans, if he possess a moderate share of penetration, who cannot read in the style of each the intellectual and moral habits of the two nations. Every country has a language suited to its wants, and conveniencies; it has also a singularity of style, originating in its peculiar temper and genius. One language is familiar, another is stately; one breathes a spirit of submission, another assumes the tone of boldness and independence; one abounds in expressions of compliment, another is remarkable for honest simplicity; one is the language of war, another of love; one is harsh and rugged, another soft and harmonious. This diversity of character, in different languages, creates a correspondent difficulty in transfusing a sentiment from one language into another, in its just and true character. Had Terence himself left behind him a translation of Aristophanes's “*Plutus*,” his version would have been deficient in the ease, the freedom, and the familiarity of the original. The stateliness of the Roman language, ill adapted to comic sentiment, could not possibly, in the hands of any master, have been made to bend, so as to assume the pliability, and easy freedom,

which characterise the style of the Grecian dramatist. And, though the complimentary phraseologies, common among us, and peculiarly characteristic of the French language, may be regarded as mere forms of civility, and certainly not to be literally understood, yet, considered as mere expressions of politeness and condescension, they are incapable of translation into the languages of antiquity. Nothing certainly can be less controvertible, than that the Greeks and Romans were utter strangers to that servility of spirit, which originally dictated these modish and complimentary phrases.

‘ But, though an identity in laws, manners, and general habits of thinking, must produce a correspondent similarity in modes of expression, and though these causes have a uniform and universal influence, yet they are partially counteracted by the particular cast of mind, and the peculiar circumstances, in which different individuals are placed. Hence arises that diversity of style, which we cannot fail to observe, in different authors of one and the same country. And as there are marked and predominant features, which distinguish the style of one country from that of another, so, on the contrary, we find, that similar peculiarities of genius, and mental constitution, exist in different individuals of different nations, and give birth to a very perceptible similarity in their modes of expression. And when two congenial minds in different countries attempt the task of mutual translation, it is in such cases that the nearest approach to a perfect delineation of the author may be expected, the sentiment, the spirit, and the manner of the original being preserved, as far as the languages can be made to harmonize.

‘ To this principle, as is justly observed by an ingenious writer, may be ascribed the excellence of Rowe’s translation of Lucan, and several of Swift’s imitations of Horace*. But the prosecution of this subject would occupy more space than our limits will admit. Suffice it to observe, that there is a national style, or mode of expression, created by national habits of thought, which it is impossible to copy with perfect precision into the language of a people of different moral and intellectual character.

‘ Having offered these general observations on the nature and the difficulty of translation, that the reader may clearly perceive what is denied him, and what permitted him to accomplish, I shall conclude with suggesting a few plain and general rules, adapted to the capacity of the junior reader, and regarding rather the mechanism than the philosophy of translation.’

We have not within our command at present the work to which the author here refers, and are therefore unable to reconsider the opinions of Dr. Burrowes concerning the character of Rowe’s Lucan, or of Swift’s imitations of Horace. Much, however, as on the whole we admire the noble and energetic version of the *Pharsalia*, and disposed as we are to allow the probability that a similarity of *tone* did exist in the minds of the

* Dr. Burrowes. See *Transactions of the R. I. Academy*, vol. vi.
Roman

Roman and of his translator, still we cannot be blind to that “*diluted dilution*,” and “*amplified amplification*,” which pervade so many passages of the English poet; and, as to any resemblance between the general character of Swift’s genius and that of Horace, there we must entirely differ with any authority. Doubtless, some of the imitations are very happily turned: but the peculiarity of the imitator’s own *intellect* and *taste* manifestly breathes through them all; and, if we were to seek for an archetype of that peculiarity among the classical writers of antient Greece or Rome, certainly it is not to Horace that we should refer, among the latter; while, among the former, we should rather have recourse to an imaginary mixture of whatever was most biting and bitter in Hipponax and Archilochus, united with the grossest freedom and familiarity of Diogenes, than to any satirical individual. Besides these remarks on the foregoing citation, we are tempted to be a little severe in our notice of what is said concerning the servility of modern languages. The accusation is certainly overcharged in a great degree: but we have not here an opportunity of discussing the question.

In the chapter that follows, we observe a singular mistake. Among many Latin phrases adduced as *precisely* answering to others in English, we have the following: *Mens solida*, Horace, the corresponding translation being, “*A solid judgment*.” Now, the meaning of “*Mente solidâ*,” in the celebrated third ode of the third book, is assuredly not that which Dr. Crombie has assigned to it. If the phrase be construed as applicable to any single act of resolution, it should be rendered ‘*firm* or ‘*steady purpose* ;’ if to the general character, ‘*determined* or ‘*unshaken spirit*.’ Such errors, we need not say, are infrequent in these pages: but some that are slighter assuredly occur; and one of them we shall have to point out at the close of a very useful passage, (useful, we mean, to the junior student,) which we shall next offer to our readers:

‘ OBSERVATIONS.

‘ *Ater*.

Niger.

“*Ater*,” says Dusmenil, “denotes a coal black colour.” — “*Tam excoctam reddam atque atram, quam carbo est.*” *Ter. Ad. v. 3. 63.* *Niger* means simply “Black.” “*Spectandum nigris oculis, nigroque capillo.*” *Hor. Art. Poet. 37.* The former implies the greatest degree of blackness, and is, therefore, as Hill observes, not found in a state of comparison, except in Plautus, in whom we find the comparative degree of this adjective. *Niger* admits comparison, as it denotes all the various shades of black, and is, therefore, capable of intension and remission. *Niger* being the generic term,

term *, every thing coal black may be called *Niger*, but every thing black cannot be called *Ater*. It is to be observed, also, that *Ater* generally

* Hill says, that *Ater* is "the generic term, as it signifies the deepest black in nature." This is, truly, a singular error—an error, which every reader, conversant in the dialectic art, cannot fail to detect. But as we have had frequent occasion to use the term *generic*, it may be of some service to the young reader, if we occupy a few minutes in attempting to explain and illustrate its meaning.

Language is composed of general terms. To create a distinct name for every individual object, would be a labour at once impracticable and useless. Of these names, some are more, and others are less general; and that, which may be a generic name, in relation to one term, may be a special name, as contrasted with another. The term *generic*, therefore, as will presently appear, admits degrees, and is, in its import, relative. But the highest generic name can never become a special one, nor the lowest special become a generic term.

In looking around us, we cannot fail to remark, that many of the objects we perceive resemble one another in their most obvious qualities and properties. Those, then, which have the same leading character, we refer to one class, and, instead of assigning a name to each individual, we assign a general name to the whole class. Thus, we give the name *Man* to the whole human species; and this name is applicable not only to the species as a whole, but also to every individual of that species. Finding that man, and other living creatures, resemble one another in the common property of life, we ascend a step higher, and reduce them all under one general class, to which we give the name of *Animal*; a name applicable at once to the whole, and also to every individual living creature. *Animal*, therefore, in relation to *Man*, is a generic term, and *Man*, in reference to it, is special. Finding that all things around us have the common property of existence, we ascend still higher, and include all under one common class, to which we give the still more general name of *Being*. In relation to *Being*, *Animal* now becomes a special term, as *Being* is, in relation to it, a generic term. Here we are obliged to stop; *Being* is, therefore, termed by Logicians, *Genus summum*, or *Genus generalissimum*, and cannot, therefore, become a special term. If we descend, and subdivide the lowest term, we proceed from *Being* to *Animal*; from *Animal* to *Man*; from *Man* to *European*; from *European* to *Englishman*; from *Englishman* to *Londoner*; and from *Londoner* to *Edward*, *James*, or *John*, as individuals. Each term, except the first, is a *Genus*, in regard to the term immediately succeeding it, and a *Species*, in reference to the term preceding, till we at last arrive at *Londoner*, which is called *Species infima*, and has no generic character, but expresses a species of which the lowest terms, *Edward*, *James*, *John*, are individuals.

Here it is worthy of the young reader's attention, that while the *genus* includes more individuals than the *species*, the name of the *species* implies more ideas than the name of the *genus*. *Animal*, for example,

generally conveys the idea of something gloomy and horrible, hence it is applied to the Furies, as "*Errinnyes atræ*." *Ov.* Unlucky days among the Romans were named *Dies atri*. *Niger*, on the contrary, is frequently applied to things beautiful and pleasant, and never conveys the idea of "frightful," "horrific," or "unpleasant to sight."

When the author ran this dangerous risk of a general negative proposition concerning the epithet *Niger*, had he in his mind the following line in the *Orpheus* and *Eurydice*?

"*Et caligantem nigrâ formidine lucum.*"

We have praised the selections of translated passages from the classics in these volumes. As the author's professed object is to facilitate the attainment of a correct prose style, and as he seems fully aware how the disproportionate attention to Latin versification stands in the way of this object in many of our most popular places of education, he is necessarily led to confine himself to the historians, orators, and philosophical writers of Rome. Here he has certainly conveyed much excellent and manly knowledge to the youthful scholar*. We are indeed always vexed when we see such obvious opportunities, as the framers of exercise-books for youth possess, either wholly thrown away or miserably perverted; and, when we read such passages in those works (be they on any language) as the following: "tawny lions roar;" "filthy swine wallow;" or, "Oh what infamous treatment have I received at the hands of Mr. B.!" we are disposed to wish the lions and the swine and Mr. B. all in one situation. History, — whether civil or natural, — morals, — and many popular parts of the sciences, — might be judiciously inculcated in the shape of exercises to be

example, comprehends more individuals than *Man*, the former embracing all living creatures, whether rational or irrational; the latter expressing the rational only. But the term *Man* implies in it more ideas than *Animal*, the latter denoting that of life only; the former, the idea of life, with those also of reason and speech; that is, it denotes, in the language of logicians, the *genus* with the specific difference.

* These observations, it is hoped, will sufficiently explain to the junior reader, the meaning of the term *generic*, and enable him to perceive the error of the critic, who supposes *Ater* to be a generic word, because it expresses the greatest degree of black. A term is not generic because it expresses the greatest degree, but because it comprehends, and expresses, a number of species. *Niger*, therefore, including every species of black, or black in general, is properly called the generic term; *Ater*, "Coal black," the special term.

* We are at a loss, however, to conceive how the author could insert in such a collection the ridiculous and inelegant story of "*Fawn and Pool*;" or why he should break off the Tale of Alexander and Clitus like that of the "Bear and the Fiddle."

rendered out of one language into another ; the mechanism of languages would be thus attained together with the materials for thinking ; and, if each exercise were introduced by some brief and clear delineation of the posture of the human mind, in that particular act which is expressed by the phrase to be illustrated in the exercise, surely a much more complete manual for the instruction of youth in the Greek, Latin, French, or Italian languages, might be compiled than has hitherto in any case been presented to the public. Dr. Crombie has done much towards supplying the deficiency in the Latin : but his work is not comprehensive enough in plan to meet our ideas above stated ; and at the same time it is already too detailed in execution (assuming the shape of a partial dictionary, rather than of an elementary exercise-book of the kind which we mean) to be made an early class-book at schools. Let us, however, be thankful for the modern improvements in this way, which are avowedly very considerable. Let us also venture to hope that, when the late unfortunate *mistakes* have been repaired, and the brief return of discord is followed by secure and long repose, let us (we say) venture to indulge the golden dream that, in every branch of human knowlege, fresh flowers and fresh fruits will appear ; and that the trunk of the tree, or human happiness, will continue to increase in strength and in solidity.

ART. IX. *Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons, on Petitions relating to the Corn-Laws of this Kingdom ; together with the Minutes of Evidence and an Appendix of Accounts.* 8vo. pp. 309. 10s. 6d. Boards. Ridgway. 1814.

ART. X. *First and Second Reports from the Committees of the House of Lords, appointed to inquire into the State of the Growth, Commerce, and Consumption of Grain, and all Laws relating thereto : to whom were referred the several Petitions presented to the House in the Session of 1813, 1814, respecting the Corn-Laws.* 8vo. pp. 349. 10s. 6d. Boards. Ridgway. 1814.

THE principal pamphlets published on this subject in the early part of the last year were noticed in our Number for August ; and in the following month an article was appropriated to an anonymous writer who had come forwards as one of the most resolute opponents of the Corn-Bill. In the former of these notices, we gave our readers a concise view of the arguments of each party ; and in the latter we entered, as far as our limits permitted, into the general principles of the question. At that time, a considerable apprehension existed that the landholders would attempt to carry the Corn-Bill at the formidable
limit

limit of 90s. or 95s. per quarter ; in other words, that foreign import would be prohibited until our home-currency should approach a rate equivalent to a scarcity-price : but a medium has been taken ; and parliament, if they have not fulfilled the hopes of the advocates for the unrestrained freedom of the trade, have at least affixed a lasting stigma to the proceedings of that committee of the House of Commons which, in the spring of 1813, recommended the exclusion of supplies from abroad until the average of our wheat should exceed the enormous price of 105 shillings per quarter !

Very many publications on the Corn-Laws have appeared within these few months, and we have announced a variety of them in our late Numbers: but the Reports presented by the committees of both Houses of Parliament remain to be noticed, as containing important facts; and it must be confessed that the evidence appended to each volume tends to support the propriety of the course followed by the legislature. No doubt, indeed, exists on the part of impartial persons, that in corn, as in every other article of trade, a state of freedom is beyond all comparison most advantageous, if circumstances admit of its adoption: but the unparalleled augmentation of our taxes during the last twenty years, and the consequent depreciation of money, have put it for the present out of the power of our farmers to withstand the competition of foreigners. The unlimited admission of supplies from abroad would create too sudden a fall of price, and would involve, as it appears from the testimony of the majority of the witnesses, the ruin of a great proportion of the present generation of agriculturists. At the same time, though the expectations of the political economist cannot now be gratified, we are not without hopes that a return to a state of permanent peace, a progressive improvement of our agriculture, and that most desirable of all public objects, a re-instatement of our money-system, may materially alter our situation relatively to foreign countries, and may permit such a modification of the law as would leave foreign corn burdened in its admission with little more than the natural and unavoidable charge of freight. Mr. Baring recommended, in the House of Commons, a specific reduction of the importing limit to take place progressively, and in the course of a few years: but, if the value of money continues to go down as it has done during the last thirty or forty years, his object may very possibly receive its accomplishment without a fresh contest in parliament, and without a formal alteration in the nominal amount of the adopted standard. The limit imposed in 1804 has already become inefficient from this cause; and there seems reason to fear that, ere the lapse of another age, the price of 80 shillings

F 4

per

per quarter may cease to form so powerful a barrier as it makes at present.

Although the question be at rest at this moment, the documents before us (as we have said) deserve attention as affording a stock of useful information on a very important topic. Official papers have been examined by the members of the committees with considerable care, and the questions put to the witnesses bear, in general, the appearance of calmness and impartiality. One of the leading objects was to ascertain, if possible, the extent of the depression likely to be produced in the British market by the free admission of foreign corn, which led to some curious information regarding Poland. Mr. Solly, a continental merchant residing in London, when questioned by the Lords on this topic, observed :

‘ The means of bringing down the grain from Poland are very limited ; all the tributary branches of the great rivers are navigable only by the melting of the snow from the Carpathian mountains principally ; and if that opportunity is lost then, another opportunity does not occur for three months afterwards, till very late in the autumn to bring corn down ; and it is no uncommon thing for the prices of corn to have been so low in Poland upon the estates, that a nobleman in the spring of the year has not thought it worth his while to re-stack his corn. The produce of estates is hardly ever warehoused or put into barns, it is almost always stacked ; and it is stacked with more or less attention, according to the quantity produced or the expectations of demand for that quantity.’—

‘ Almost the whole of Poland is divided into estates belonging to nobility ; and the inhabitants upon those estates are slaves. The ground is cultivated without any reference, therefore, to any relation which the expence of cultivation bears to the price which the produce is to be sold at. The income of the nobleman depends upon it ; and his income is more or less, according as the produce is greater or less, or sells for a greater or lesser price.’—

‘ Do you know whether in Poland there have been distilleries erected by proprietors on their own estates ?—Yes, there is not an estate without a distillery, and the quantity of beer which the low class of people in Poland drink amounts to nothing ; their quantity of spirits is their regular diet ; corn spirits is part of their regular diet ; their breakfast consists of a glass of brandy, no tea, no beer. A Polish Jew, who is generally a middle man between the Polish nobleman and the exporter, will live upon a Swedish herring, a piece of bread, and a glass of brandy, for four-and-twenty hours ; I refer to corn spirits of their own manufacture.’—

‘ Do you happen to know what the expence of conveyance is, upon an average, from the place where the corn is grown in Poland to the shipping ports ?—No, I do not ; but relatively speaking it must be very heavy, for a great quantity is brought down in vessels built for the purpose, and useless for any subsequent purpose ; so that the whole expence of building the vessel must fall upon the article it conveys.

‘ What

‘ What sized vessels are they, and by what number are they navigated?—I think I have seen them from thirty to eighty feet long; they do not draw a foot and a half water; they find that the expence of conveying the corn down has increased beyond its means, for they are now altering the mode of building their vessels, that they may serve the purpose of more than one voyage. They formerly used a class of vessels which was a perfect square, put together of wood as roughly hewn as possible; and that it was impossible of course to draw against the stream, worked by oars on all four sides.’—

‘ What is the present system of bringing down the corn?—It is now brought down in vessels sharp-headed, and consequently they are enabled to convey them against the stream, so that the vessels now can go back again when the stream is not rapid; it is very rapid at the beginning of the year, but in the months of July and August the stream is navigable back.

‘ Do they work them back with horses?—No, with men and oars.’

The expence arising from the length of the passage, and from the awkwardness of the mode of conveyance, is so great as to make the trade profitable only when the price of wheat in the London-market approaches to 70s. This we are told. (Evidence, Lords’ Report, p. 188.) in direct terms; and Mr. Solly adds (p. 79.) the cogent argument that the importers have frequently been considerable sufferers. The quantity of wheat exported from Poland, in the course of a year, is said by another witness (Evidence, Commons’ Report, p. 206.) to vary from 200,000 to 500,000 quarters; and Pomerania, with the rest of Germany bordering on the Baltic, is considered by the same authority as likely to furnish an average supply of from 100,000 to 150,000. England is the great customer, and our prices are the principal regulators of those of the Baltic: but Spain and Portugal likewise draw frequent supplies from the same quarter, and operate, at times, in no inconsiderable degree to influence the rate of the market. The charges of conveyance being nearly similar on all qualities of corn, the rule at Dantzic and other foreign ports is to ship only the best quality; a circumstance which serves to explain the higher prices of foreign wheat stated in our Mark-Lane-currency, without any reflection on our own agriculturists.

From the following information, given by Mr. Arthur Young, (Evid. Commons’ Report, p. 175.) it appears that the value of money has undergone considerable depreciation in Russia:

‘ Have you had any opportunity of ascertaining the price of grain in foreign countries, either at the present period or at former periods?—My son has lately arrived from Russia, where he resided nine years, and he brought over with him various documents relative to the price of corn and all sorts of provisions, which I thought extremely curious; they are collected by a district officer, and reported to the governor of the province, who sends them regularly to Petersburg. The
governor

74. *Reports from the Lords and Commons, on the Corn-Laws*

governor of the province of Reazon favoured him with a copy of the return for that province ; and from 1781 to 1789, nine years, compared with fourteen years, from 1790 to 1803, the rise in the price of wheat was just 40 per cent. comparing the average of the one period with the average of the other. I had the curiosity to compare those prices with those of the same period in England ; and I thought it extremely curious that the rise in the price of wheat in England should turn out just 41 per cent. that it should be within one in 41 exactly the same rise as in Russia.

Ireland.—The interest of Ireland was strongly urged in the late parliamentary debates ; the advantage of a high price for her corn in the British market being held forth as a counterpoise to our sister-island for the drain occasioned by absentees, and by extensive purchases of our manufactures. Mr. Wakefield, whose voluminous work on Ireland we reported (M. R. May, 1813,) at considerable length, was questioned by the committees with regard to the extent of recent improvements in the state of Irish agriculture :

‘ Has not the population of Ireland, during the last thirty years, increased very considerably?—I have no doubt that the population has greatly increased.

‘ As considerably in proportion as that of Great Britain?—It is generally supposed to have increased much more rapidly ; my reason for believing that population has greatly increased is, that by official returns I find, that

In the year 1754 there were 395,439 houses.

In the year 1767 - - 424,646

In the year 1777 - - 448,426

In the year 1785 - - 474,322

In the year 1788 - - 621,484

In the year 1791 - - 701,102

‘ In estimating the expences of cultivation, the price of grain of the feeding horses, and price of labour, forms of course a part of the total amount ; what price do you think wheat should be at, to enable the farmer in Ireland to pay the present expences ? — I think the Irish cultivator can afford to take a less price for his corn than the English, because he has less taxes to pay ; and therefore I should think 70s. a quarter might be considered by the Irish cultivator as a saving price.

‘ Do you think, that with wheat at 70s. a quarter in Ireland, there would be a sufficient inducement to increase the cultivation of wheat ? — I should think there would, as far as the climate would allow of it.

‘ Do you speak of wheat of the best quality, when you state those prices ? — No ; I should say the average price.

‘ Is the Irish wheat of the best quality, superior to the average quality of the English ? — I do not think it is ; in the first place, the extreme wet of the climate is against the production of a fine sample of corn ; husbandry is there so backward, that it is badly harvested, and generally threshed upon the ground, in consequence of which the corn is so wet, that it is all kiln-dried before it is ground.’

Inferior, however, as Irish wheat still is, its quality has been greatly improved in late years. The following table shews the quantity of oats and wheat imported from Ireland since 1792; and the fourth column contains the annual value of these articles, together with the value of an accompanying import, to a small extent, of barley, oatmeal, and wheat flour:

Imported from Ireland into Great Britain.

Years.	Oats.	Wheat.	Total Value.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	£.
1792	483,931	1,270	598,370
1793	269,465	13,974	391,460
1794	361,653	8,551	495,004
1795	335,920	13,408	526,803
1796	280,416	—	470,628
1797	289,253	36,489	464,234
1798	310,570	16,667	549,848
1799	324,857	14,773	600,920
1800	640	131	13,785
1801	366	—	3,804
1802	275,088	86,939	839,507
1803	230,017	48,228	525,860
1804	198,758	65,890	564,321
1805	186,144	78,692	721,304
1806	326,814	91,343	925,183
1807	307,957	38,784	687,996
1808	436,854	39,436	1,091,709
1809	782,622	57,680	1,732,155
1810	417,697	82,280	1,205,511
1811	207,255	93,062	836,926
1812	303,535	97,195	1,641,583

France and Flanders.— After our deficient harvest of 1809, a great part of our remaining specie was drained from us to pay for foreign corn. This happened most unluckily at the time when the prosecution of the war in Spain called for all the money that we could spare: but no alternative seemed to present itself; it having been declared in the House of Commons on the part of the Board of Trade that, had not importation been permitted, the quartern loaf might and most probably would have risen to half-a-crown. The harvest in the north of France, and in Flanders, having in that year been abundant, large supplies were received from these quarters, although, for a number of years, they had furnished us with very little; and several witnesses agree in considering them as not likely to possess any material surplus in future. Mr. Kingsford,

ford; a flour manufacturer, was questioned on this subject by the committee :

‘ Have you been on the continent lately ? — I have ; through some part of Flanders, from Calais to Paris, first to Dunkirk and from thence to Paris.

‘ Did you go with a view to make inquiries relative to the corn trade ? — I did ; that was my business.’ —

‘ What were the prices of wheat and oats ? — Calculating the measure and the exchange, wheats varied from 45s. to 54s. per quarter, allowing for the exchange.’ —

‘ Could you have purchased any considerable quantity at those prices ? — No ; it was impossible : the merchants at that period would have been afraid to have had any quantity by them, particularly if it had been known that it was procured for export.

‘ Was there a clamour against the export, or any apprehensions ? — There were apprehensions there would be a clamour : indeed the merchants stated their apprehensions, if the export was allowed, of acting upon it.’ —

‘ From the information you collected in France, do you infer that any regular supply of bread-corn can be relied upon from that country ? — Certainly not.’

Mr. Scott, whose extensive concerns in the corn-trade are a matter of general notoriety in London, gave evidence to the same effect :

‘ From what parts of Europe are the supplies of foreign corn principally derived ? — Chiefly from the ports in the Baltic, the Eider, the Elbe, the Weser ; and the ports in Holland, which receive their supplies from the Rhine and parts adjacent ; and in only once in my own experience, during the last twenty-four years, from Flanders and France.

‘ In what year was that supply procured from France and Flanders ? — It was after the harvest of 1809, and to July 1810, when the export was prohibited.

‘ Can you state the peculiar circumstances that enabled us to draw corn from those countries, in that particular year ? — In that year an extraordinary accumulation, arising from the surplus, as I understood, of three successive plentiful harvests, had reduced the prices extremely.’ —

‘ Is the export of wheat from the Baltic only occasional, as in France and the Netherlands, or may it generally be relied upon, in the event of a supply being wanted for this country ? — The Baltic has always a considerable surplus of wheat to spare for the other countries of Europe.’

The ensuing table shews the average price of wheat in this country since 1792, and the amount of our annual importation :

Years.	Average price of Wheat in England.		Quantity of Wheat imported.	Years.	Average price of Wheat in England.		Quantity of Wheat imported.
	s.	d.	Quarters.		s.	d.	Quarters.
1792	42	11	18,931	1803	56	6	224,055
1793	48	11	415,376	1804	60	1	386,194
1794	51	8	316,086	1805	87	10	821,164
1795	74	2	274,522	1806	79	0	136,763
1796	77	1	820,381	1807	73	3	215,776
1797	53	1	420,414	1808	79	0	35,780
1798	50	3	378,740	1809	95	7	245,774
1799	67	6	430,274	1810	106	2	1,304,577
1800	113	7	1,174,523	1811	94	6	179,645
1801	118	3	1,186,237	1812	125	5	115,811
1802	67	5	470,698				

Having thus noted our prices and amount of importation, we shall next see from what countries our chief supplies have been derived :

	1805.			1810.		
	Oats.	Wheat.	Wheat flour.	Oats.	Wheat.	Wheat flour.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Cwts.			Cwts.
Denmark and Norway }	13,755	35,671	—	14,814	110,936	9
Russia	—	154,904	—	6	58,126	25
Sweden	2,282	18,810	—	2,872	68,398	—
Poland and Prussia }	117,462	559,628	—	875	296,757	—
Germany.	81,953	32,828	—	30,480	176,014	1,575
Holland	58,504	9,637	—	62,098	189,016	—
Flanders and France }	—	532	5,452	820	334,887	202,932
United States	—	12	47,044	—	34,829	210,210
Our N. American Col. }	—	2,242	30	—	22,969	4,316
Other parts	1,149	6,900	2,013	3,951	12,645	53,576

We have made choice of the years 1805 and 1810 as exhibiting importations on a large scale: but, owing to particular circumstances, the quantity of wheat-flour imported from the United States was smaller in these than in most other years. In 1807 and 1809, the importations amounted respectively to nearly half a million of cwts.

America. — In a voyage of such length as that which crosses the Atlantic, it is much more advisable to make an importation in

in the shape of flour than of corn; the latter being not only somewhat dangerous to the ship from its liability to shift in a gale of wind, but, from being put into the hold in bulk, is more exposed to damage than flour, which in the case of a long voyage is always packed in barrels. These barrels weigh 196 lbs. each, and are very carefully visited in America before they are put on board. The flour (Evid. Commons' Report, p. 224.) is always made from kiln-dried wheat, examined by a public inspector, and branded in a way that points out both the quantity and the quality with official authority. The consequence is that damage is very seldom sustained, and that the flour is landed in Europe in the best condition. Spain and Portugal are great markets for this commodity, and receive it directly from the United States. Its importation into Portugal afforded a very effectual supply to our army under Lord Wellington.

Farming in Great Britain.—With regard to the increase of money-rent and farming-charges in England, since the year 1790, the opinion of almost all the witnesses is that they have doubled; or, in other words, that the value of money has fallen one half: which is shewn with sufficient minuteness by the returns made to circular letters sent by the Board of Agriculture to different parts of the Kingdom, desiring an account of the expence of cultivating one hundred acres of arable land. The subsequent table contains the averages of three distinct years, at periods considerably remote from each other:

	1790.			1803.			1813.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Rent - -	88	6	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	121	2	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	161	12	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tithe - -	20	14	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	26	8	— $\frac{1}{2}$	38	17	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Rates - -	17	13	10	31	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	19	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wear and Tear -	15	13	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	11	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	31	2	10 $\frac{3}{4}$
Labour - -	85	5	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	118	—	4	161	12	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Seed - -	46	4	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	49	2	7	98	17	10
Manure - -	48	—	3	68	6	2	37	7	— $\frac{1}{2}$
Team - -	67	4	10	80	8	— $\frac{1}{2}$	134	19	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Interest - -	22	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	3	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	50	5	6
Taxes - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	18	1	4
Total	411	15	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	547	10	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	771	16	4 $\frac{1}{2}$

The amount of the last column would be considerably greater if the article of manure were properly stated, but in this a deficiency occurred in consequence of accidental omissions.

Mr. A.

Mr. A. Young, after having rectified this irregularity, computes (Evid. Lords' Report, p. 144.) that the rise in the twenty-three years between 1790 and 1813 is not less than 102 per cent.

The majority of the witnesses examined were land-surveyors, or persons in the habit of valuing land previously to its being let; and they were, in course, particularly qualified to satisfy the committees with regard to a question of great importance, viz. What proportion the rent of a farm generally bears to its whole produce? One witness, (Evid. Commons' Report, p. 59.) on being asked the question, replied:

‘ If it were a fair farm of an equal quantity of pasture and tillage-land, I always estimate that the farm should, at any rate, make three rents.

‘ Supposing the whole of it to be stiff land, how do you estimate it?— It ought to make four rents.

‘ Light land?— Light land should make three rents.’

Another witness gave an answer (Evid. Lords' Report, p. 62.) at somewhat greater length:

‘ What is your rule in countries highly improved, and in countries where improvement has not attained to so great perfection of culture?— We first of all go over the land, and ascertain the quantity which each field will produce per acre, from the appearance of the land; we then make the valuation out, and deduct the outgoings generally, such as the poor's rates, and all rates and taxes, except the property-tax, which we never take into consideration, conceiving that that ought to attach to the farmer's profits. We think highly cultivated land, good land, ought to produce three rents; one of which ought to go for expences, one for the profits, and one for the rent: but in poorer land, in land of a lower quality, we perhaps make four or five times the original rent, because it requires additional expence in cultivation, and of course will not produce so much crop.’

One of the most acceptable characteristics of the improved husbandry is the augmentation of the proportion of rent to the total produce of a farm. East Lothian is well known to be a favoured district in point of soil and climate, and to take the lead of the Scottish counties with respect to agricultural produce. It appears from an account delivered by Mr. Brodie, who farms to the extent of not less than 6000l. a-year, that considerably more than a third (Evid. Lords' Report, p. 236.) of the gross product can be paid in that quarter to the landlord. We extract the following instructive particulars from the evidence of this gentleman:

‘ I have been long a farmer; rent has increased rapidly in East Lothian since I have been a farmer: the first farm I rented I paid 28s. it would now fetch from 4l. 10s. to 5l. an acre.

‘ Where is that land?— In East Lothian.

‘ How

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‘ How long is it ago since it let for 28s.?—I took it in the year 1776 upon a 19 years’ lease.’—

‘ How much has labour increased since that time?—The best labourer we had then we gave him from 8d. to 10d. a day, we now pay from 2s. to 3s. ; half-a-crown is about the medium.’—

‘ Have you formed any opinion what would be a reasonable protecting price of wheat for the farmer?—We calculate that two guineas a boll at the present rents, would make a remuneration to the farmer, that would be equal to about 80s. a quarter ; I took my farm two years ago.’—

‘ State your system of cropping, and the average produce?—The system is a six-shift rotation ; most part of the land being a turnip-soil ; we begin with turnips ; we next take half of that field wheat and half barley.

‘ What produce have you, per acre, of each sort of grain on an average?—About ten bolls of wheat, a Scotch acre, and of barley nearly as much ; but a boll of wheat is not so much as a boll of barley ; four bolls of barley is exactly three quarters Winchester ; two bolls of wheat is about 4 per cent. more than a Winchester quarter.

‘ What is your next crop in the course?—Artificial grasses ; one year grass, the next year, half oats and half wheat ; the next is beans, potatoes and tares, mostly beans ; the last wheat.

‘ Do you estimate your second crop as high as the first?—It ought to be better ; it is generally our best crop upon our best lands.

‘ Can you speak to the use of lime in Scotland?—I can to its use in East Lothian.

‘ Is it very extensively used?—Yes ; very extensively used.

‘ On what sort of lands principally?—All the arable land that has not the command of sea-weed.

‘ At what expence upon an average, per acre?—From 12l. to 13l. in some cases more ; it depends upon the distance.’—

‘ Have you the command of sea-weed?—Yes ; the land which has the command of sea-weed is 20s. an acre more value, than if it had not.’—

‘ Can you state to the committee what on your best land, that is, land at five or six pounds an acre, is the quantity of wheat which you have grown per acre for any number of years?—I calculate that land at six pounds an acre, or thereabouts, ought to produce about ten bolls per acre.

‘ That is forty bushels, is it not?—Yes, forty bushels, or a trifle more.

‘ What is the largest quantity of wheat you have ever got per acre from any farm of yours in one year?—In the year 1805 my average was fourteen bolls per acre.

‘ That is rather better than fifty-six bushels, is it not?—Yes, it is.

‘ What quantity of barley do you get from the same land per acre?—Nearly the same number of bolls as of wheat.

‘ That is ten bolls, which is sixty bushels?—Yes.

‘ Can you state the quantity of oats you get?—Seventy-two bushels.’—

‘ To what do you attribute principally the superior rents that are paid in Scotland over those that are generally given in England?— I suppose principally because the tithes and the poor’s rates in England operate against the farmer.

‘ Do you conceive it to be in any degree owing to superior skill, greater capital, or greater frugality in living on the part of the farmers in Scotland?— I think the farmers in Northumberland are equal to any farmers I ever saw, that there is no better farming any where than in Northumberland; but on the other parts of England I cannot form a judgment, I know nothing of their modes of living.’

The Scotch acre, it is of importance to observe, is larger by a fifth than the English.—Mr. Wakefield was examined not only as to Ireland, but as to the present state of agriculture in this country :

‘ From the attention you have paid to the state of agriculture in this country, are you of opinion, that of late years it has been very much improved?— Yes, I think there has been a considerable improvement of late years; but there is one great line of this country found so much superior to the rest, from Lynn to the Thames, the whole of the eastern edge of the three counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, the sea-side, that is, in my opinion, two hundred years before the rest; and it is a curious thing, that on the eastern side of Scotland there is the same attention to agriculture.’—

‘ Do you not believe it to be one of the great misfortunes to the agriculture of this country, that a very large proportion of the cultivators of the land have very little or no capital?— That is the chief reason why you may be able to account that the farming of England will hardly bear to be examined much in detail.

‘ Have you not found it, in the course of your practice, extremely difficult to get tenants to remove from one county to another?— Extremely so.

‘ Have you not found it almost as difficult, if not more so, to make any innovations in the manner of farming?— Yes, it is very difficult certainly.’

Leases.—Mr. Coke, in a debate on agricultural subjects several years ago, took occasion to recommend strongly to his brother land-holders the adoption of the practice of granting leases. The unsettled state of our money-system, and the sudden changes from war to peace, have of late been unfavourable to the execution of such a plan: but there seems little doubt that, on the renewed attainment of permanent tranquillity, the agriculture of the kingdom at large may receive from such a practice advantages similar to those which have been already experienced by our eastern and northern counties. Notwithstanding the acknowledged liberality of the majority of our country-gentlemen, it would be idle to expect that a tenant should lay out capital on the improvement of a farm, to the same extent on a tenure which may be disturbed by the occurrence of a death, or by the commission of a trespass, as on

one which is possessed of all the security of a legal contract. The following answer from a surveyor in extensive business, in the central part of England, gives a clear account of the present method of making these bargains, as well as of some other interesting topics :

‘ Can you state what proportion of the lands you have let within the last twenty years are let upon lease, or to tenants from year to year ? — By far the greater proportion on lease for seven years ; some few to tenants at will : the leases from seven to fourteen years have been renewed again.’ —

‘ Where you have let estates very much out of condition, or consisting in part of waste lands requiring extensive improvements, have you not generally granted a longer lease ? — Yes, generally so on those occasions ; but that is not often the case ; sometimes for twenty-one years in that case.’ —

‘ Where lands are let from year to year, is there not generally something like an assurance on the part of the landlord, that the improvements shall be considered and allowed for in the event of a removal, or that the tenant shall not be removed for a certain number of years ? — Generally so.

‘ And it is that assurance which induces tenants to lay out money in such improvements ? — Certainly.

‘ Is not there a great proportion of tenants, that you would consider from year to year, as to whom there is an honorary engagement between the landlord and the tenant, that they shall not go out till the end of seven years ? — There are a great many.’ —

‘ In any farms which you let during the year 1813, did you set them at a lower rent than you would have done in the year 1810 or 1811 ? — Certainly.

‘ On what account was that ? — In the prospect of a peace ; and my opinion was, that we had gone too high before.

‘ What do you conceive are the outgoings of the landlord, what per centage, such as repairs ? — We generally reckon five per cent. but that is so very uncertain, there is no criterion.’ —

‘ Do you conceive that a landlord, with a rent double what it was in 1792, is in possession of a better income, having reference to the value of every thing ? — Taking into consideration the price of every article he must purchase, I do not think he is.

‘ Without reference to what he purchases for his living, how much do you think a landlord puts into his pocket now, in comparison with what he did five-and-twenty years ago ? — Nearly double.’ —

‘ Are you acquainted with the value of other immovable property, houses and ground-rents, and lands generally not in tillage ? — I am.

‘ Has this description of property doubled in price since 1792 ? — I think it doubled to within about four or five years, and that since that time it has considerably decreased in value.

‘ Do you mean houses in London ? — Houses and ground-rents in general.’ —

‘ Latterly, land has decreased ? — Yes, but nothing like houses ; houses are the heaviest article we have to get rid of.

‘ Do you think that an income of 400*l.* a year at this time will command more of the necessaries and comforts of life, all the com-

man expenditure for a family, than 200l. would in 1792? — Certainly not; I think a man with 200l. a-year could live as well at that time, as he can now for 400l. a year.'

A list of shipments from our different sea-ports conveys an idea of the respective districts in which corn is most abundant. The shipments from the east coast are chiefly for London; the others are for different parts of the island, and a very small proportion for foreign countries:

Ports.	Shipped:		
	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.
Aldbro' - - -	10,146	18,499	1,068
Alemouth - - -	11,761	135	32,370
Beaumaris - - -	11,710	1,628	27,093
Berwick - - -	30,875	11,788	45,486
Boston - - -	60,591	800	273,993
Carmarthen - - -	262	800	57,080
Chepstow - - -	18,788	12,820	826
Colchester - - -	18,086	9,581	2,547
Faversham - - -	26,614	4,538	3,062
Hull - - -	11,557	3,940	42,307
Ipswich - - -	20,343	19,725	2,418
Lynn - - -	36,834	82,504	2,383
Maldon - - -	9,105	1,066	1,499
Newcastle - - -	9,632	2,839	10,928
Pembroke - - -	6,120	1,346	14,985
Rochester - - -	7,039	1,749	2,708
Southwold - - -	11,857	8,276	515
Stockton - - -	8,564	150	27,159
Wells - - -	10,671	45,837	985
Wisbeach - - -	16,393	28	15,039
Woodbridge - - -	28,843	17,267	3,315
Yarmouth - - -	33,785	148,656	4,672
Anstruther - - -	9,699	6,301	1,280
Dumfries - - -	4,327	8,552	48,250
		13 T. 11 C. }	
Dunbar - - -	7,804	2,794	7,354
Dundee - - -	8,403	11,827	7,726
Inverness - - -	18,749	265	1,711
Kircudbright - - -	4,362	504	7,617
		2 T. 15 C. }	
Leith - - -	23,560	2,897	6,262
Montrose - - -	4,468	14,287	7,017
Preston Pans - - -	2,079	2,049	4,251
Stranraer - - -	2,318	179	21,139
Wigton - - -	6,878	1,104	13,954
		28 T. 2 1/2 C. }	
		hull'd.	

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Warehousing System. — Among other restrictions on the import of foreign-corn, a duty was formerly payable on taking out for home-consumption all that had been warehoused at a season when the ports had not been open : but, by the act of the present session, this duty is taken off, and our warehouses are opened to the admission of corn-deposits from all parts of the world. The consequence will be that, in a season of plenty and cheapness on the Continent, a corn-merchant, though not at liberty to expose grain among us to sale, may have it lodged in our warehouses, and may draw it forth at any time and without any expence for the purpose of re-export. He may draw it forth, likewise, free of expence, for sale in the British market, at those particular periods at which a rise in our average-price opens our ports to the admission of foreign supplies. Such an arrangement, if not calculated to make any material reduction in the price of corn, can scarcely fail to operate in rendering that price more uniform, inasmuch as it must tend to increase the extent of the supply on the spot.

The great arguments for passing the corn-bill at the rate of 80 shillings per quarter were that, without such a measure, the majority of our farmers would be ruined, and the kingdom rendered dependent on foreign countries for a large proportion of our annual wants: for it was maintained that our agriculturists, on finding the impracticability of withstanding the competition of foreigners as to corn in our own market, would turn a great part of their land into pasture, in the hope that butchers' meat, wool, butter, and cheese, would be less unprofitable articles than corn. Another argument was that our taxes, during the last twenty years, have advanced in a double ratio to our rents; which was shewn indeed in a very short compass :

	Year ending 5th April 1791.			Year ending 5th April 1804.			Year ending 5th April 1814.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Permanent Taxes }	13,993,162	17	10½	26,169,700	1	4½	33,722,828	1	2
War Taxes	—	—	—	3,741,319	5	11	23,805,678	3	5
Taxes annu- } ally granted }	2,445,059	3	1½	4,195,942	—	1½	4,993,097	5	5½
£.	16,438,282	—	11½	34,106,961	7	4½	62,521,603	10	—½

The succeeding table manifests the progressive rise of prices in the County of Somerset, the ratio of which is doubtless applicable to other parts of the kingdom :

Years.

Years.	Average price of wheat per Winchester bushel.	Average price of beef and mutton per lb. of 16 oz.	Modus of		Labourer's wages per day.
			Great tithes let at	Small tithes let at	
From 1773 to 1782	s. d. 5 11	d. 2½	£. 105	£. 45	s. d. 1 2
1783 to 1792	6 2	3½	120	50	1 3
1793 to 1802	9 5	7½	184	80	2 0
1803 to 1812	12 6	8½	232	100	2 4

From this and other documents, the landholders argue that, in consequence of the rapid increase of taxes, their clear income, though nominally much greater, is in point of value considerably less than it was twenty years ago. They cannot, with any justice, assert that the pressure of national expence has borne so heavily on them as on the commercial classes: but they may, without impropriety, maintain that the rise of income is merely apparent, and that land remains as it was, while money is depreciated by one half.

We are sorry to be obliged to observe that we have remarked several inaccuracies of printing in the present edition of these parliamentary documents. We have, for example, 'ever' for "never" in p. 250. of the Evidence to the Commons' Report; and the *pro forma* account-sale (p. 164.) is by no means given in a distinct manner.

ART. XI. *Guy Mannering*; or, the Astrologer. By the Author of "Waverley." 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

OUR general remarks on the genius which dictated the excellent romance of Waverley are equally applicable to this second production of the same artist; and our critical task on the present occasion, therefore, will be confined to a much narrower compass. In point of style, the two works evidently display the hand of the same master. They are at least a resemblance of each other, "*qualem decet esse sororum*;" and, if the one never rises to the epic dignity which, in part, characterizes the other, the inferiority is only to be attributed to their different lots in life: Waverley having been placed among scenes of high national interest and importance, while Guy Mannering is confined to those of a domestic, and, in great part, of a low and vulgar character. Still the consummate observation of all the striking varieties of life and manners, the power of picturesque description which is not more conspicuously exerted in the

portraiture of lakes and mountains than of a cottage fire-side or a gipsy's hovel, and the talent which confers the effect of reality on all that it presents to the imagination, are equally eminent in both; and, on a comparison of performances so alike and yet so different, it is impossible, we think, to say that the one is deserving, in a general manner, to be set up as an object of preference above the other.

In point of story, however, to novel-readers in general, Guy Mannering must possess a decided superiority over his elder brother; and if to our own feelings the case may be very different, this is a mere matter of taste. Yet one strong and glaring objection may be urged against the later production, arising from the circumstance to which it owes its second title. That circumstance is in itself much too unimportant to have been elevated to the dignity of a godfather; and, in one respect, it is lucky that this is the case, since, had it been rendered more prominent, its gross improbability,—or, to speak more correctly, its absolute moral impossibility,—would have justly condemned the bantling which had the misfortune to be named after it. If the anecdote which has been reported, of the calculation said to have been made by Dryden respecting his son's nativity, and its accomplishment, be set up by the author of *Guy Mannering* as a justification of his own puerile fiction, we must reply that, even if we placed implicit reliance (which we certainly do not) on the credibility of the Dryden-story, we should, for that very reason, be so much the less inclined to admit that which is here related; since the improbability of the first event happening must increase, we know not how many millions of times, that of a similar fact ever again occurring. Moreover, the prediction in the novel, embracing a double set of contingencies, and extending to two individuals, is rendered even in itself more unlikely to meet its accomplishment than that of which our great poet is the reported author, in a ratio to which, we believe, Demoivre's highest numerical calculation of chances does not extend. On the other hand, if it should be alleged that this principle of calculation is not admissible into the regions of romance, we answer that we have no objection to enter into those favoured climes whenever we are fairly and legitimately summoned thither: but that, in a species of writing which founds its only claim to our favour on the reality of its pictures and images, the introduction of any thing that is diametrically contrary to all our ordinary principles of belief and action is as gross a violation of every rule of composition as the appendage of a fish's tail to a woman's head and shoulders, or the assemblage of any others the most discordant images on a single canvas.

Having

Having thus freely represented what we consider to be the principal and indeed the only serious blemish in this highly picturesque and amusing work, we shall not tire our readers by attempting a frigid analysis of a story which, though of sufficient interest to keep awake the attention of the most habitual novel-reader, possesses no very superior claims to distinction on the ground of originality, and is besides of too complicated a nature to be abridged within reasonable limits. We rather conclude that we shall here perform our duty in a manner more acceptable to our readers, as well as more agreeable to ourselves, by laying before them some of the scenes and characters which are dispersed through the performance. The first portrait which we shall exhibit is that of the simple, honest, affectionate, and excentric being who filled the respectable office of chaplain in the family of the Laird of Ellangowan, and who acts a very conspicuous and always entertaining part in the drama before us :

‘ Though we have said so much of the Laird himself, it still remains that we make the reader in some degree acquainted with his companion. This was Abel Sampson, commonly called, from his occupation, as a pedagogue, Dominie Sampson. He was of low birth, but having evinced, even from his cradle, an uncommon seriousness of disposition, the poor parents were encouraged to hope, that their *bairn*, as they expressed it, “ might wag his pow in a pulpit yet.” With an ambitious view to such a consummation, they pinched and pared, rose early and lay down late, eat dry bread and drank cold water, to secure to Abel the means of learning. Meantime, his tall ungainly figure, his taciturn and grave manners, and some grotesque habits of swinging his limbs, and screwing his visage while reciting his task, made poor Sampson the ridicule of all his school-companions. The same qualities secured him at college a plentiful share of the same sort of notice. Half the youthful mob “ of the yards ” used to assemble regularly to see Dominie Sampson, (for he had already attained that honourable title,) descend the stairs from the Greek class, with his Lexicon under his arm, his long mis-shapen legs sprawling abroad, and keeping awkward time to the play of his immense shoulder-blades, as they raised and depressed the loose and threadbare black coat which was his constant and only wear. When he spoke, the efforts of the professor were totally inadequate to restrain the inextinguishable laughter of the students, and sometimes even to repress his own. The long sallow visage, the goggle eyes, the huge under-jaw, which appeared not to open and shut by an act of volition, but to be dropped and hoisted up again by some complicated machinery within the inner man, the harsh and dissonant voice, and the screech-owl notes to which it was exalted when he was exhorted to pronounce more distinctly, all added fresh subject for mirth to the torn-cloak and shattered shoe, which have afforded legitimate subjects of raillery against the poor scholar from Juvenal’s time downward. It was never known that Sampson either exhibited irritability at this ill

usage, or made the least attempt to retort upon his tormentors. He slunk from college by the most secret paths he could discover, and plunged himself into his miserable lodging, where, for eighteen-pence a-week, he was allowed the benefit of a straw mattress, and if his landlady was in good humour, permission to study his task by her fire. Under all these disadvantages, he obtained a competent knowledge of Greek and Latin, and some acquaintance with the sciences.

‘ In progress of time, Abel Sampson, probationer of divinity, was admitted to the privileges of a preacher. But, alas! partly from his own bashfulness, partly owing to a strong disposition to risibility which pervaded the congregation upon his first attempt, he became totally incapable of proceeding in his intended discourse, gasped, grinned, hideously rolled his eyes till the congregation thought them flying out of his head, shut the Bible, stumbled down the pulpit-stairs, trampling upon the old women who generally take their station there, and was ever after designated as a “stickit minister.” And thus he wandered back to his own country, with blighted hopes and prospects, to share the poverty of his parents. As he had neither friend nor confidant, hardly even an acquaintance, no one had the means of observing closely, how Dominie Sampson bore a disappointment which supplied the whole town where it happened with a week’s sport. It would be endless even to mention the numerous jokes to which it gave birth, from a ballad, called “Sampson’s Riddle,” written upon the subject by a smart young student of humanity, to the sly hope of the principal, that the fugitive had not taken the college-gates along with him in his retreat.

‘ To all appearance the equanimity of Sampson was unshaken. He sought to assist his parents by teaching a school, and soon had plenty of scholars, but very few fees. In fact, he taught the sons of farmers for what they chose to give him, and the poor for nothing; and, to the shame of the former be it spoken, the pedagogue’s gains never equalled those of a skilful ploughman. He wrote, however, a good hand, and added something to his pittance by copying accounts and writing letters for Ellangowan. By degrees, the Laird, who was much estranged from general society, became partial to that of Dominie Sampson. Conversation, it is true, was out of the question, but the Dominie was a good listener, and stirred the fire with some address. He attempted also to snuff the candles, but was unsuccessful, and relinquished that ambitious post of courtesy after having twice reduced the parlour to total darkness. So his civilities, in future, were confined to taking off his glass of ale in exactly the same time and measure with the Laird, and in uttering certain indistinct murmurs of acquiescence at the conclusion of the long and winding stories of Ellangowan.

‘ Upon one of these occasions, he presented for the first time to Mannering his tall, gaunt, awkward, boney figure, attired in a threadbare suit of black, with a coloured handkerchief, not over clean, about his sinewy, scraggy neck, and his nether person arrayed in grey breeches, dark-blue stockings, clouted shoes, and small copper buckles.’

The

The description of the gipsies, whose community for a long time found harbour in the grounds of the good-natured Laird, and whose expulsion from them forms the æra from which flow all the misfortunes of his house and the strange adventures of his son, (which are the principal subjects of the novel,) is equally original and powerful: but it is difficult to select any passages that will bring the picture with sufficient force before the reader. The colouring bestowed on the terrible ‘Meg Merrilies,’ the most remarkable personage of this lawless groupe, is of a character more wildly sublime than any that is to be found in the most nearly corresponding features of *Waverley*. We cannot, however, restrain ourselves from quoting rather largely from that part of the history which relates to the mysterious disappearance of the little boy who becomes the hero of the succeeding adventures. The two additional persons introduced on this occasion are Frank Kennedy, the gauger, and Dirk Hatteraick, a Dutch smuggler; the latter of whom has long carried on his depredations on the coast in league with the gipsy-gang, under the imagined security of acquiescence from the Laird of Ellangowan. The origin of this extraordinary transaction is thus related:

‘There was, at this period, employed as a riding officer or supervisor, in that part of the country, a certain Francis Kennedy, already named in our narrative; a stout, resolute, and active man, who had made seizures to a great amount, and was proportionally hated by those who had an interest in the *fair-trade*, as they called these contraband adventurers. This person was natural son to a gentleman of good family, owing to which circumstance, and to his being of a jolly convivial disposition, and singing a good song, he was admitted to the occasional society of the gentlemen of the country, and was a member of several of their clubs for practising athletic games, at which he was particularly expert.

‘At Ellangowan, Kennedy was a frequent and always an acceptable guest. His vivacity relieved Mr. Bertram of the trouble of thought, and the labour which it cost him to support a detailed communication of ideas; while the daring and dangerous exploits which he had undertaken in the discharge of his office, formed excellent conversation. To all these revenue-adventures did the Laird of Ellangowan seriously incline, and the amusement which he derived from his society formed an excellent reason for countenancing and assisting the narrator in the execution of his invidious and hazardous duty.

“Frank Kennedy,” he said, “was a gentleman, though on the wrong side of the blanket — he was connected with the family of Ellangowan through the house of Glengubble. The last Laird of Glengubble would have brought the estate into the Ellangowan line, but happening to go to Harrigate, he there met with Miss Jean Hadaway — by the bye, the Green Dragon at Harrigate is the best house of the two — but for Frank Kennedy, he’s in one sense a gentleman

gentleman born, and it's a shame not to support him against these blackguard smugglers."

' After this league had taken place between judgement and execution, it chanced that Captain Dirk Hatteraick had landed a cargo of spirits, and other contraband goods, upon the beach not far from Ellangowan, and confiding in the indifference with which the Laird had formerly regarded similar infractions of the law, he was neither very anxious to conceal nor to expedite the transaction. The consequence was, that Mr. Frank Kennedy, armed with a warrant from Ellangowan, and supported by some of the Laird's people who knew the country, and by a party of military, poured down upon the kegs, bales, and bags, and, after a desperate affray, in which severe wounds were given and received, succeeded in clapping the broad arrow upon the articles, and bearing them off in triumph to the next custom-house. Dirk Hatteraick vowed in Dutch, German, and English, a deep and full revenge, both against the gauger and his abettors; and all who knew him thought it likely he would keep his word.'

A few days afterward, Frank Kennedy was seen, one afternoon, galloping up the avenue which led to the house of Ellangowan, where he 'arrived in high spirits.'

' "For the love of life, Ellangowan," he said, "get up to the castle! you'll see that old fox Dirk Hatteraick, and his Majesty's hounds in full cry after him." So saying, he flung his horse's bridle to a boy, and ran up the ascent to the old castle, followed by the Laird, and indeed by several others of the family, alarmed by the sound of guns from the sea, now distinctly heard.

' On gaining that part of the ruins which commanded the most extensive outlook, they saw a lugger, with all her canvass crowded, standing across the bay, closely pursued by a sloop of war, that kept firing upon the chase from her bows, which the lugger returned with her stern-chasers. "They're but at long bowls yet," cried Kennedy, in great exultation, "but they will be closer by and bye. — D—n him, he's starting his cargo! I see the good Nantz pitching overboard, keg after keg! — that's a d——d ungentleel thing of Mr. Hatteraick, as I shall let him know by and bye. — Now, now! they've got the wind of him! — that's it, that's it! — hark to him! hark to him! — now, my dogs! now, my dogs! — hark to Ranger, hark!"

' "I think," said the old gardener to one of the maids, "the gauger's *fic*;" by which word the common people express those violent spirits which they think a presage of death.

' Meantime the chase continued. The lugger, being piloted with great ability, and using every nautical shift to make her escape, had now reached, and was about to double, the head-land which formed the extreme point of land on the left side of the bay, when a ball having hit the yard in the slings, the main-sail fell upon the deck. The consequence of this accident appeared inevitable, but could not be seen by the spectators; for the vessel, which had just doubled the head-land, lost steerage, and fell out of their sight behind the promontory. The sloop of war crowded all sail to pursue, but she had
stood

stood too close upon the cape, so that they were obliged to wear the vessel for fear of going ashore, and to make a large tack back into the bay, in order to recover sea-room enough to double the head-land.

‘“ They’ll lose her by —, cargo and lugger, one or both,” said Kennedy; “ I must gallop away to the Point of Warroch, (this was the head-land so often mentioned,) and make them a signal where she has drifted to on the other side. Good bye for an hour, Ellangowan — get out the gallon punch-bowl, and plenty of lemons. I’ll stand for the French article by the time I come back, and we’ll drink the young Laird’s health in a bowl that would swim the collector’s yawl.” So saying, he mounted his horse, and galloped off.

‘ About a mile from the house, and upon the verge of the woods, which, as we have said, covered a promontory terminating in the cape called the Point of Warroch, Kennedy met young Harry Bertram, attended by his tutor, Dominic Sampson. He had often promised the child a ride upon his galloway; and, from singing, dancing, and playing Punch for his amusement, was a particular favourite. He no sooner came scampering up the path, than the boy loudly claimed his promise; and Kennedy, who saw no risque in indulging him, and wished to tease the Dominic, in whose visage he read a remonstrance, caught up Harry from the ground, placed him before him, and continued his route; Sampson’s “ Peradventure, Master Kennedy” — being lost in the clatter of his horse’s feet. The pedagogue hesitated a moment whether he should go after them; but Kennedy being a person in full confidence of the family, and with whom he himself had no delight in associating, “ being that he was addicted unto profane and scurrilous jests,” he continued his own walk at his own pace, till he reached the Place of Ellangowan.’

Soon after the disappearance of Kennedy with the child, the distant reports of cannon, ‘ and, after an interval, a louder explosion, as of a vessel blown up,’ seem to announce to those who are on the watch the capture or destruction of the smuggler. The family then sit down quietly to dinner; and Dominic Sampson, being censured for leaving the boy to the care of the harum-scarum gauger, sallies forth again in quest of his stray sheep. At last, the Laird begins to participate in the fears which his lady had sometime before expressed for the child’s safety; and those anxieties are not lessened when one servant brings word ‘ that Mr. Kennedy’s horse had come to the stable-door alone, with the saddle turned round below its belly, and the reins of the bridle broken,’ and another returns after a fruitless search with intelligence that he had neither seen nor heard any thing of Kennedy and the young Laird, ‘ only there was Dominic Sampson, gaun rampaging about, like mad, seeking for them.’

‘ All was now bustle at Ellangowan. The Laird and his servants, male and female, hastened to the wood of Warroch. The tenants and cottagers in the neighbourhood lent their assistance, partly out of zeal,

zeal, partly from curiosity. Boats were manned to search the sea-shore, which, on the other side of the Point, rose into high and indented rocks. A vague suspicion was entertained, though too horrible to be expressed, that the child might have fallen from one of these cliffs.

‘ The evening had begun to close when the parties entered the wood, and dispersed different ways in quest of the boy and his companion. The darkening of the atmosphere, and the hoarse sighs of the November wind through the naked trees, the rustling of the withered leaves which strewed the glades, the repeated halloos of the different parties, which often drew them together in expectation of meeting the objects of their search, gave a cast of dismal sublimity to the scene. —

‘ The agony of the father grew beyond concealment, yet it scarcely equalled the anguish of the tutor. “ Would to God I had died for him !” the affectionate creature repeated in notes of the deepest distress. —

‘ At this instant, a shout was heard from the beach, so loud, so shrill, so piercing, so different from every sound which the woods had that day rung to, that nobody hesitated a moment to believe that it conveyed tidings, and tidings of dreadful import. All hurried to the place, and, venturing without scruple upon paths, which, at another time, they would have shuddered to look at, descended towards a clift of the rock, where one boat’s crew was already landed. “ Here, sirs !—Here !—this way, for God’s sake !—this way !—this way !” was the reiterated cry. Ellangowan broke through the throng which had already assembled at the fatal spot, and beheld the object of their terror. It was the dead body of Kennedy. At first sight he seemed to have perished by a fall from the rocks, which there rose in a precipice of a hundred feet above the beach. The corpse was lying half in, half out of the water ; the advancing tide, raising the arm and stirring the clothes, had given it at some distance the appearance of motion, so that those who first discovered the body thought that life remained. But every spark had been long extinguished.

‘ “ My bairn ! my bairn !” cried the distracted father, “ where can he be ?” — A dozen mouths were opened to communicate hopes which no one felt. Some one at length mentioned — the gypsies ! In a moment Ellangowan had re-ascended the cliffs, flung himself upon the first horse he met, and rode furiously to the huts at Derncleugh. All was there dark and desolate ; and, as he dismounted to make more minute search, he stumbled over fragments of furniture which had been thrown out of the cottages, and the broken wood and thatch which had been pulled down by his orders. At that moment the prophecy, or anathema, of Meg Merrilies fell heavy on his mind. “ You have stripped the thatch from seven cottages, — see that the roof-tree of your own house stand the surer !”

‘ “ Restore,” he cried, “ restore my bairn ! bring me back my son, and all shall be forgot and forgiven !” As he uttered these words in a sort of phrenzy, his eye caught a glimmering of light in one of the dismantled cottages — it was that in which Meg Merrilies formerly resided. The light, which seemed to proceed from fire, glimmered

not only through the window, but also through the rafters of the hut where the roofing had been torn off.

‘ He flew to the place ; the entrance was bolted ; despair gave the miserable father the strength of ten men ; he rushed against the door with such violence that it gave way before the *momentum* of his weight and force. The cottage was empty, but bore marks of recent habitation—there was fire on the hearth, a kettle, and some preparation for food. As he eagerly gazed around for something that might confirm his hope that his child yet lived, although in the power of those strange people, a man entered the hut.

‘ It was his old gardener. “ O Sir ! ” said the old man, “ such a night as this I trusted never to live to see ! — ye maun come to the Place directly ! ”

‘ “ Is my boy found ? is he alive ? have ye found Harry Bertram ? Andrew, have ye found Harry Bertram ? ”

‘ “ No, Sir ; but ” —

‘ “ Then he is kidnapped ! I am sure of it, Andrew ! as sure as that I tread upon earth ! She has stolen him—and I will never stir from this place till I have tidings of my bairn ! ”

‘ “ O, but ye maun come hame, Sir ! ye maun come hame ! — We have sent for the sheriff, and we’ll set a watch here a’ night, in case the gypsies return ; but *you*—ye maun come hame, Sir — for my lady’s in the dead-thraw. ”

‘ Bertram turned a stupified and unmeaning eye on the messenger who uttered this calamitous news ; and, repeating the words “ in the dead-thraw ! ” as if he could not comprehend their meaning, suffered the old man to drag him towards his horse. During the ride home, he only said, “ Wife and bairn, baith—mother and son, baith—sair, sair to abide ! ”

We have selected enough to display the undiminished powers both of description and pathos which are exhibited by the author in this performance ; and to evince that, though bestowed on less dignified objects than those which form the leading features of *Waverley*, they are alike drawn from, and appeal to, the inmost recesses of the human heart. — The worthy Border-yeoman, Dandie Dinmont of Charlie’s hope, is another personage of no little dignity and merit in the drama ; the pictures of manners and character in that class of society may rank with the most finished productions of the Dutch school, or of our national painter, Wilkie ; and though we do not pretend to have seen anywhere his exact prototype, we have not the smallest doubt of the strict personal identity of Paulus Pleydell, Esquire, advocate at Edinburgh. The fastidious will probably object to the unsparing use of the Scottish dialect : but, though sometimes put to a stand by the terms of a phraseology so unusual to us, we can willingly pardon even this inconvenience for the sake of the additional reality which it bestows on the representation before us.

Another

Another novel by this writer, to be intitled *the Antiquary*, is said to be forthcoming; and the name of Mr. Walter Scott is again mentioned as the author, with increased confidence.

ART. XII. *The Paradise of Coquettes*, a Poem. In Nine Parts. Crown 8vo. 9s. Boards. Murray. 1814.

A VERY sensible preface, which introduces this volume, contains many just remarks on the state of poetry in England at present. The author observes that we are so wholly engrossed with the two fashionable styles,—that of the newly revived romance, or, as he popularly calls it, ‘the Ballad-Style,’—and that of ‘the Serious-descriptive,’ in which all is grave and gloomy, or minute and metaphysical,—that no room seems to be left in our minds for a species of poetry once fashionable in this country, viz. the lighter and more fanciful sort of composition, of which “*The Rape of the Lock*” affords the happiest example. At the high state of civilization to which we have attained, it would certainly, from the first view of the question, seem probable that *this* sort of poetry, as affording room for the delineation of manners congenial to our own, would be the most popular: but a very little reflection will convince us that we usually are inclined to literary pursuits which vary the tone and tenour of our ordinary life; and that, consequently, descriptions of ruder times, or narratives of the effects of violent passions, have a better chance of attracting our attention than more tranquil and elegant scenes and manners. The love of variety, in a word, is the master-key that unlocks most of the secrets of the human mind, and in matters of taste it is all-powerful. The good people of the literary as well as of the political world cannot long be happy without a change; and Dryden and Pope have been imitated to satiety. As we observed in a preceding article, the popular leaders of the succeeding schools have also been copied, until their reputation, like that of their elders, begins to wane; and, doubtless, we shall ere long recur with renewed delight to our antient models. All this seems to us perfectly simple, and according to constant experience. We are not a little amused, therefore, at seeing one race of critics laboriously endeavouring to establish these humble truisms; and another, with equal zeal and discretion, striving to shew that there is no truth in them. Leaving such thorny disputations to those who are fond of them, we shall proceed to the pleasing volume before us; the author of which, although now anonymous, must soon be *déterré*.

A vein of polite irony runs through ‘*The Paradise of Coquettes*,’ which was familiar to the writers of the age of

Anne and George the First, but has been discarded, in making other modern improvements, by our contemporaries. We are, indeed, become a most matter-of-fact generation, even in our professed works of fancy; and he who reads many of the novels and some of the poems of the day might fancy that he was inhabiting a country in which mathematics and methodism held divided empire over life and literature. It is refreshing to us, we own, to breathe again the freer air of imagination; and, were it not that the author of this ingenious and good humouredly satirical poem has dwelt too long on his subject, and has sometimes been rather ponderous in his trifling, we should say that the breakfast-table and the toilette (if such an *abstract idea* now existed) had gained the greatest poetical accession in this volume that they have acquired for many weary seasons.

In the first canto, the poet introduces himself to his chosen audience — of females; and from this canto, as not interfering with the design of the work, we shall make several of our quotations.

The address to Ovid, the delight of the poet's youth, seems to us very natural and very pleasing; and we, too, recollect the first impressions of this engaging book:

‘ Boldest of tell-tales, that to mortal eye
Giv’st the soft scandal of the laughing sky!
How dear that far-past day, when first, by chance,
Thy pictur’d miracles detain’d my glance!
’Twas in that room, scarce known to sun and air,
Still call’d *the Study*, tho’ no student there;
Where, but one day in seven with books perplex’d,
The chaplain sought his sermon *with* his text,
And still the shortest, which his hand might trace,
His weary hand, e’er dinner call’d to grace;—
There, hid in dust, beneath the cobweb’d store
Of reverend tomes, as heavy as their lore,
I found, and, while he slumber’d off the toil
Of two long periods, bore away my spoil.
With what insatiate hope my gaze I fed,
And, wondering still, yet trusted all I read!
And while undoubting from the verse I drew
Joys, loves, and fears, and wishes, all how new,
Where’er I glanc’d Olympus seem’d to rise;
Nurse Rachel’s self a *goddess* in disguise.
— Yet ah! tho’ now a *Woman’s* form she wore,
My rose-cheek’d cousin might be mine no more.
What terror, when, each tale of wonder done,
The fate of thousand nymphs I fear’d for *one*!
Some god might sue: — and though, in careless pride,
With every god a rival by my side,
Her love I safe had trusted, sure to see
Immortal suppliants scorn’d, and scorn’d for *me*,

Yet

Yet might their vengeance strike each frailer part,
And change her *charms*, — that could not change her *heart*.

‘ That very eve, when she, whom oft to greet
A welcome guest I ran with ready feet,
Too long a stranger, to a home of joy
Return’d, and sought with early glance her boy ;
Clasp’d on her knee once more, and smil’d to own
Her little fondling on his favourite throne ;
Even on that happy seat, while gay I press’d
The bending lip, caressing and caress’d,
How did I tremble, lest some jealous power
To a chill leaf should turn that living flower !
How oft I almost fancied from her charms
A sudden foliage rustling in my arms,
And starting, while a doubtful glance I rais’d,
Felt even her kiss turn colder, as I gaz’d !’

If this be a little overcharged in point of fancy, let our readers remember that it is a youthful scene ; and who shall limit the fairy dreams of youth ?

‘ Tales of my nursery ! *shall that still-lov’d spot* *,
That window-corner, ever be forgot,
Where, thro’ the woodbine when with upward ray
Gleam’d the last shadows of departing day,
Still did I sit, and, with unwearied eye,
Read while I wept, and scarcely paus’d to sigh !
In that gay drawer, with fairy fictions stor’d,
When some new tale was added to my hoard,
While o’er each page my eager glance was flung,
’Twas but to learn, what *female* fate was sung :
If no sad maid the castle shut from light,
I heeded not the giant and the knight.

‘ Sweet Cinderella, even before the ball,
How did I love thee, — ashes, rags, and all !
What bliss I deem’d it to have stood beside,
On every virgin when thy shoe was tried ;
How long’d to see thy shape the slipper suit ;
But, dearer than the slipper, lov’d the foot !’

After this specimen of early gallantry, (and, by the way, we are really pleased with the attachment here professed for Cinderella, and our favourite but now exploded “ Nursery Tales,”) we cannot wonder that the author declares himself in form the worshipper and the bard of woman ; and, after having promised to devote himself to subjects adapted to the gentle nature of his inspiring patroness, he thus anticipates his future honours :

* ‘ *Shall that still-lov’d spot.*’ What a lesson of dissonance is exhibited in these syllables ! Such things ought not to be in English verse.

‘ So, with unstudied rapture, o’er my page
Shall bend the brightest eyes of every age,
There dwell, unmindful of the evening’s show,
Forgot the plume, the tissue, and the beau.
While gloves the Prayer-Book but on Sundays cross,
And stiff-bound Bibles never lose their gloss,
Quick-opening leaves my ready tome shall speak
The dearer daily ritual of the week.
Amid those leaves, — as oft to be survey’d —
Some lover’s treasur’d rhymings shall be laid,
The first sweet billet which reveal’d his sigh
And all which Love makes sense to Beauty’s eye.

‘ When novels weary, — or, all duly done,
The ruthless sire appeas’d, the daughter won,
When marriage, closing each delightful strife,
Leaves the dull *husband* yawning with his *wife*,
Still with new rapture shall my page succeed, —
And languid eyes turn brighter, while they read.

‘ Oft in the crowded rout, when, spite of guile,
The spreading numbness creeps o’er every smile,
When eyes, that fain would sparkle, ‘mid the ring
Have said a thousand times the same dull thing,
Some happier belle shall quote my tender line, —
And beaux, who never read — shall know it mine.’

The same strain is pursued with equal spirit, at the conclusion of the canto ; and here also we must conclude our extracts, and omit the passages which we had intended to give from other parts of the work. Indeed, we must have quoted amply sufficient to excite the curiosity and to claim the approbation of any reader, who is not wholly absorbed in the wilder or more sombre effusions of this author’s rivals.

‘ And that sweet star, which life’s best radiance gave,
The star of Beauty, still shall light my grave.
O ! when this heart, which throbs but to adore,
Shall breathe one constant prayer, and thrill no more,
When looks, which once could double life, shall speak,
Nor one pale rapture flush along my cheek, —
O ! will ye then my frequent thought renew,
True to his memory, who in death was true ?
So, tho’ no marble Seraph seem to rise,
Cold from my tomb to guide me to the skies,
Warm living angels there shall bend, and shed
The tears I love, upon my conscious bed.
There, if the simplest wildflower of the spring
Thro’ the low grass its dewy radiance fling,
Soft hand shall stoop, the hallow’d gem to bear,
Yet almost shrink, and start, to pluck it there.
And when some other lyre — when mine is mute —
Shall to these strains its votive numbers suit,

Catch all the worship, and, with sweeter song,
 But not with fonder heart, the theme prolong;
 When the proud Bard the glowing verse shall swell,
 And Beauty hang attentive o'er his shell,
 Even while she smiles delighted, and repays
 The tuneful homage with her warmest gaze,
 A sudden sadness to her eye shall start,
 And strains, long lov'd, shall float around her heart.
 The master's hand shall pause: — his glance shall see
 The half-hid tear; — and know 'twas given to *me*.'

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, FOR MAY, 1815.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Art. 13. *Canting*: a Poem, interspersed with Tales, and additional Scraps. Crown 8vo. pp. 193. Whittingham and Arliss. 1814.

"All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely" — *canters*. Such is the position maintained in this sprightly poem; and the author is so desirous of establishing its universality, that he does not object to being himself charged with *canting* even when in the very act of declaiming against it. Why, indeed, should he not come in for his share of this universal failing? Does he not cant when he says,

'One motive guides me in each theme I choose,
 One leading principle — a wish to *amuse*?'

Here is the *cant* of modesty. Under the mask, however, of a satire against canting, he furnishes no despicable materials for thinking; and, in easy, unrestrained poetry, sometimes flowing and sometimes hudibrastic, he attempts to help the reader to a correctness in thinking. We have been much amused by many of his examples, illustrations, and arguments: but in some points he seems to fail. E. G.

'No system without *cant*, — in prose or song; —
 And POPE's "*whatever is is right*" is wrong!'

To prove the inadmissibility of Pope's maxim, the writer adverts to the extra powers of some animals for seizing their prey, and the extra powers of others for escaping from their pursuers; and these extra powers, existing both at once, are said to 'amount to none at all.' He then adds,

'All *cant*; mere *cant*! — The truth, at once, we'll give,
 Flies — pigeons — die, that spiders — hawks may live!
 Or, rather, had no flies or pigeons been,
 Perhaps no hawks, or spiders, could be seen!
 Devouring and devoured is Nature's plan;
 Man preys on all, and many prey on man!'

So far, however, is this explanation from shewing that Pope is wrong, that the philosophy of both bards ends in a confession of ignorance.

Let us now turn to the more lively parts of this half-laughing, half-philosophizing performance. — Under the head of *Facts mistaken*, we meet with these just remarks :

‘ ’Tis *cant* when authors, eulogizing peace,
Bid war with all its train of horrors cease ;
Lament that nations make the warrior’s name
Stand always foremost on the list of fame !
Yet do these authors, in the self-same breath,
E’en while they deprecate the scenes of death,
Such language use, such glowing terms indite,
And glory paint in such a dazzling light,
To deeds of arms inflame the youthful mind,
And future heroes form “ to plague mankind ! ”

‘ While this the practice, vain the *cant* they preach —
Vain all the aphorisms pedants teach :
With learning, reason’s mirror should be brought,
Reflecting truth and falsehood as we’re taught :
For if the physic goes not with the food,
E’en Homer does more injury than good ! ’

The world has long lamented the impossibility of transmitting the treasures of the mind from father to son, so that the son might begin where the parent left off : but this writer goes farther, and shews the impossibility of combining grains of sense so as to form a mass. The illustration has some humour, and, if not quite new, is new to us :

‘ Who are “ The World ? ” — these “ People ? ” —

Messrs. Jacksons,
Smiths, Wilkins, Jenkins ; Mesdames Clacks and Clacksons !
Not one of their opinions worth a straw : —
Should minds inform’d by them be kept in awe ?
Let us but individually take ’em,
How light, how insignificant, we make ’em !
You’ll say, tho’ harmless one, you fear the many ;
Yet fifty nothings don’t amount to any ! —

‘ Now we’ll suppose the Jacksons have some brain ! —
The thing’s improbable ! — but, say — a grain !
These, with the Clacks, you’d think, two grains wou’d make ;
But reason’s balance proves this a mistake !
Weigh the whole bunch, and we’ve of sense no more,
The self-same grain, in one, or in a score !

‘ This thought is whimsical, perhaps ’tis new ;
Somewhat ridiculous, — but strictly true !
The reasons, too, are obvious why ’tis so :
Jacksons can teach no more than Jacksons know :
The same with Smiths, and all who’re of that school,
Who nought originate, but think by rule !
A grain of sense taught one, is held by all,
It forms the common stock, however small :

As one thinks, all think ; thus they all remain,
 Until some other mind adds one more grain !
 That given the Smiths they tell it Clacks and Clacksons ;
 So on it goes to Wilkins, Jenkins, Jacksons !

Thus thro' the whole the work of sense is done,
 And then we find two grains instead of one !

' Hence it appears, ere truth's great heights are mounted,
 Opinions must be weigh'd, as well as counted !
 The Smiths and Clacks in number might appal,
 Till reason proves one weighs as much as all ?'

Some few couplets are execrable ; for instance, at p. 18.

' For this the tyro pores, and gapes, when odd he sees
 Those wond'rous gentry, Heathen Gods and Goddesses :'

but so much good sense pervades the production of this easy satirist, and so happily has he diversified his strictures with tales, that we can forgive him his negligences. We cannot so easily pardon his additional Scraps, which spoil the effect of the whole of the playful philosophy that is intended to laugh us out of those *cant*-phrases which indicate that we are little more than parrots, into the use of words resulting from weighed thought, which are symbols of enlightened men.

' We first learn to repeat, exactly in the same way as with respect to parrots and magpies ! only their faculties are more limited than ours : instead of confining ourselves, like them, to "Mag ! Mag ! — Poor Poll ! and What's o'clock !" — we go on from "Papa ! Mamma ! — Gee up ! — Cock-horse !" to "Bubble — Double, toil and trouble ! — I believe ! — As it was ! — World without end ! — Amen !"

' In fact, we thus continue hearing and repeating words and sentences, till we learn enough to form what is called a Language, which, when duly considered, is nothing more than a voluminous Collection of Cant Phrases !'

Art. 14. *Jephthah*. A Poem. By Ed. Smedley, jun. 8vo. pp. 27. Murray. 1814.

Some allowance must be made for a poet who exercises his genius on a proposed subject, and enters the lists with other competitors for the same prize. For the sake of sublime effect, Mr. Smedley has chosen to adopt the opinion that Jephthah actually offered his daughter a living victim, according to the spirit of his vow ; and, in order to make the most of this tragic incident, we should have supposed that, after having so minutely portrayed the daring character of this hero, and the attractive qualities of his daughter, Mr. S. would have described her sacrifice on the altar. Instead of so affecting a finale, we are conducted to the tomb of Jephthah, and this sad tale is made to proceed from a pilgrim's mouth :

' " But virgin blood has stain'd that fearful wild —
 A father too — and this his only child —
 Yet was she nothing loth ; and meekly bow'd
 The breast his rashness to their God had vow'd :

Kiss'd

Kiss'd his pale lips, and bade him take the life
 He once bestow'd, and bless'd the lifted knife :
 And if her cheek was moisten'd with a tear,
 Not for herself it flow'd but one more dear.
 Then sigh'd her parting wish, that the same stone
 Might some time hold his ashes with her own.
 There, as they tell, for many a sorrowing year
 The maids of Judah mourn'd upon her bier :
 Scatter'd the firstlings which to Spring belong,
 And bath'd the sadness of their soul in song.
 There voices strange are heard when night is still,
 And sounds mysterious float upon that hill :
 Shapes too have there been seen, not such as earth
 Contains, and shadows of no mortal birth.
 Such as another world alone can give,
 Such as no eye may view, and hope to live.
 Condemn'd awhile in gloomy wastes to stray —
 Alla forefend, that such should cross our way !”

This passage will sufficiently shew that Mr. S.'s powers of versification are by no means of an inferior kind. Rarely is he guilty of tameness: but more than once he ends his line with the infinitive mood, which always offends ; as

‘ Drunk with the fury of his strength to slay ;’
 and just above, this passage, he takes a liberty still more unwarrantable :

‘ He comes — his falchion dyed in Ammon's red.’
 Blood is here understood : but the use of the adjective without the substantive cannot thus be tolerated.

Art. 15. *King Edward III. an Historical Drama*, in Five Acts.
 8vo. 3s. Colburn. 1814.

Our antient achievements against the French, in the battles of Crécy and Poitiers*, being supposed to bear some resemblance to our recent victories over them, the author of this piece imagines that a dramatic delineation of the reign of our third Edward will be in unison with the feelings and sentiments of the English reader. Regarding Shakspeare's historical plays as his model, he frequently changes the scene from England to France, and from one part of the kingdom to another ; and by this process he passes in review before us the striking events of that portion of history which he undertakes to display. If he arrogates to himself any praise, it is that of fidelity ; having endeavoured to make his drama a compendium of Froissart and of Barnes the biographer of the King. As he makes no high pretences to poetical diction and ornament, he will not be surprized if we object to his prosaic lines and long speeches ; and though, in his delineation of individual and national character, he manifests considerable skill, we think that he should have worked up his conclusion to more stage-effect. — Various accounts have been given of the origin

* See an account of these battles, by a French writer, in pp. 469, 470. of the *Appendix* to the last volume of our Review, published with this number.

of the order of the Garter, which was instituted in the reign of Edward III.: but this dramatist adheres to the circumstance of Edward's picking up Lady Salisbury's garter, of whom he was enamoured; and for the blue colour of the ribbon we are carried back to the times of the Argonauts, and the blue fillet of the Samothracian priests. — As a specimen of the diction, we transcribe the scene which exhibits the finding of the garter :

‘ SCENE IV. *The State Apartments. — The Court assembled. — Music, &c. &c.*

‘ KING EDWARD, SALISBURY, WARWICK, SIR WALTER MAUNY, LADY SALISBURY, &c.

‘ *K. Edw.* Ah beauteous Salisbury, give me thy hand,
No sinful thought disturbs my chasten'd breast,
But as a pilgrim to St. Mary kneels,
My pure devotion bending seeks to learn
If yet thy penitent may hope for pardon.

‘ *Lady Salis.* Arise, my Lord; see how your gentlemen
Smile as they look at us.

‘ *K. Edw.* Let them. What's this? (*he lifts her garter.*)
You look as if you all had pleasant fancies. — (*to the Lords.*)
O shame! Shame to the man who evil thinks.
Fair Salisbury, blush not at this accident;
I'll make this cause of their injurious thoughts
So richly honour'd as the meed of worth,
That the blest relics of the church shall be
Sooner contemn'd than the all-sacred garter;
Kings, Emperors, the primest of the great
Shall kneel in reverence as they put it on;
And England, to the latest of her fame,
Think the best recompense she can bestow
On highest valour and victorious blood,
The adorn'd memorial of a virtuous dame.

But the feast waits for us — lady, your hand. [*Exeunt.*]

Shakspearean terms are allowable: but ‘*speeding veins*’ and ‘*musicians*’ are not Shakspearean. — When the author puts into the mouth of King Edward this description of the French people,

‘ There is an active devil in their blood
That will not let them rest,’

the modern English will not question the accuracy of the delineation.

EDUCATION.

Art. 16. *An Introduction to Practical Arithmetic*; wherein Solutions by cancelling are more generally adopted than have hitherto been. Designed for the Use of Schools. By George James Aylmer. 12mo. bound. Forsyth, 114. Leadenhall-street.

We find but one rule in the present treatise of arithmetic which is not carried to a sufficient extent: but we should have liked the work much better if the author had applied his new rule of *cancelling* to the rule itself, since it would certainly have improved the performance; and if he had done the same to the whole manuscript, before he sent it

it to the printer, the public would have suffered no loss. With the exception, however, of this whim, we see little to praise or to blame in the work: the author goes through the same routine of definitions, rules, and examples, that are commonly found in books of arithmetic; and he executes them, with the above exception, on nearly the same plan.

We have always stated it as our opinion, that the rules of arithmetic are already too numerous; and we shall therefore never sanction with our approbation any useless addition to them. The method of cancelling in fractional operations is in many cases convenient, while the numbers are small, and consequently their factors readily discovered: but to attempt the application of the same principle to every case, on large numbers as well as small, we must consider as indicating a great want of correct knowledge of the nature of arithmetical computation, and a disqualification for becoming an author.

It too frequently happens that a man no sooner enters on the duties of a teacher, than, wishing also to shine as an author, he looks about for some trifling deviation from the usual practice, and it signifies little to him whether it be for the better or worse. He then extols the importance of his discovery to his pupils; the pupils communicate it to their parents; the parents talk it over among their friends; and the author finds himself *covered with glory* even before he has committed his labours to the press. We have heard of a school-master who wrote a treatise of arithmetic for the purpose of introducing the *Rule of Thunder and Lightning*, by means of which the distance of a thunder-cloud could be ascertained from the ticking of a watch. Fortunately, however, for the author and the public, such *tempestuous rules* had no charms for the booksellers; and Paternoster-row, already groaning under its accumulation of arithmetics, escaped for once the intended addition to its burden.

POLITICS.

Art. 17. *Reflexions Politiques, &c.*; i. e. Political Reflections on some late temporary Publications, and on the true Interests of the French Nation. By M. de Chateaubriand. 8vo. pp. 144. Paris; and Berthoud and Wheatley, London. 1814.

M. de Chateaubriand comes here before the public in a calmer mood than in his former production, which we noticed about twelve months ago. (Vol. lxxiv. p. 107.) M. Carnot's pamphlet against the Bourbons having excited considerable attention in France, among those who continued to adhere to the principles of the Revolution, the present writer takes up the gauntlet against him, and seems now to feel the necessity of substituting argument for that declamation which characterized his former effusion. He divides this small tract into twenty-three chapters or sections, in each of which he discusses, with considerable ingenuity, one of the leading topics of his adversary; and, without giving much credit to the sincerity of so direct a panegyrist, it is but fair to remark that he is, on different occasions, successful in opposing those arguments which Carnot had attempted to push too far. On comparing the conduct of the Jacobins with that of the regicides of Charles I., he draws a very proper contrast

trast between their personal views and feelings ; most of the Republicans in our country having been actuated by zeal, and having derived little individual advantage from the course of events and the overthrow of government.

The late change in France has appeared to many among us to confirm Carnot's observations, and to prove the existence of a general distrust of the sincerity of the Bourbons : but, without being the encomiasts of that family, or attributing to them the talents necessary in a situation of difficulty, many persons affirm that the change which led to Bonaparte's re-instatement was strictly military ; and that the conduct of the Bourbons favoured it no farther than as it had excited discontent, to a certain degree, among the troops. The half-pay list of France was loaded with military officers to a degree of which, large as our establishments have been, we have in this country no conception ; and the prospect of continued peace, and of consequent inactivity, was far from welcome to men who had been accustomed to traverse the Continent in the style of conquerors, and whose vanity prevented them from acknowledging, or even believing, that they had been fairly vanquished. These feelings, joined to the predilection which the French troops so naturally bear towards an old commander, may account for that sudden change which others explain by a supposition of previous concert and correspondence with a discontented party.

The present author passes a high eulogium on the *Charte Constitutionnelle*, which he considers as calculated to meet the views of both parties, and to heal the wounds of France. It is in vain, he says, to look for any thing like tranquil government under the republican form, in a nation of twenty-eight millions ; a point in which he will receive the concurrence of all who have studied the history of the Revolution, or have acquired, from personal intimacy, an acquaintance with the French people. — On the whole, we can go farther in approving this than we could in recommending the former tract ; and our chief present objection to M. de C. is the potent admixture of flattery conspicuous throughout his pages : which appears both in his manner of speaking of the royal family, and in the compliments which he occasionally affects to throw out to the army.

Art. 18. *A Letter to the Earl of Liverpool, on the probable Effect of a great Reduction of Corn-Prices, by Importation, upon the relative Condition of the State and its Creditors, and of Debtors and Creditors in general.* 8vo. pp. 108. 3s. Black, Parry, and Co. 1814.

This writer begins by describing himself as a youthful inquirer, but as laying claim to the attention of the public from a disposition to be impartial, and from his being wholly disinterested with regard to the points in question. He has evidently read and thought much on the subject : but he has unluckily taken little trouble to arrange the results of his reasoning ; so that it is no easy matter to ascertain his leading objects, or to follow the thread of his long continued arguments. His main purpose seems to be to warn the public against indulging flattering expectations from a reduction in the price of corn, in consequence of the opening of our ports to foreigners : because such a measure would necessarily be attended with a sacrifice of a portion

portion of the agricultural body ; and the increase of the value of money, consequent on the fall of corn, would benefit scarcely any set of persons except the funded proprietors. He discusses, also, at considerable length, the effect of a rise in the value of money on our taxes, and on our manner of paying the interest of our national debt : which would be to benefit the public creditor at the expence of the rest of the nation, and would have the effect of adding materially to the embarrassments of the Treasury.

Since the late decision in Parliament, arguments like these are matters of mere speculation, and will be found more or less correct according to the pains taken by a writer to analyze his materials before he proceeded to hazard conclusions. Nothing can be more erroneous than the notion (p. 47.) that our navigation was benefited by our rupture with America, and that we have since possessed the carrying trade of the world ; while a very different opinion should be passed on those parts of this tract (pp. 40. 53, 54.) in which the author calculates the operation of a rise in the value of money on the produce of our taxes. It seems to be quite unnecessary for us, after all our previous observations on this subject, to enter on an analysis of the reasoning now brought forwards ; and we shall close our comments with recommending to this young writer an increased attention to method, and the omission of such uncouth words as ‘ agriculturaler,’ &c.

Art. 19. Letter of Charles C. Western, Esq. M. P. for the County of Essex, to his Constituents, on the Subject of the Foreign Corn-Trade, August 5. 1814. Crown 8vo. 1s. Budd and Calkin.

As Mr. Western has taken an active share in promoting the Corn-Bill, he deems it incumbent on him to satisfy his constituents respecting his motives for such a course. He therefore embodies in a short tract all the leading arguments in favour of the measure ; alleging that a slight addition to the quantity of our own land in cultivation would give us all that is wanted to make our supply equal to our consumption. He dwells also on the impolicy of being dependent for this prime necessary of life on foreign countries ; the government of which would, in all probability, seize the opportunity of laying a tax on the export of corn at the time when we should be most in want of it. His support of the measure has proceeded, he maintains, (pp. 24, 25.) more from a view to public than to personal interest ; his property lying chiefly in Essex, which county, from its vicinity to the metropolis, and the good quality of its grain, would be likely to bear competition in the event of an importation of foreign corn. It would be poor farmers in distant counties, with a bad sample and bad market, who, in his opinion, would be the first and greatest sufferers.

Though in 1804 Mr. Western took an active part in the Corn-Bill of the day, he was no friend, we believe, to the extraordinary proposition of the Committee of 1813, to prohibit foreign corn until the price of our own should exceed 105s. per quarter ; and he is therefore nowise disposed to go to an extreme length in support of his favourite system. A considerable share of candour also appears
in

in his manner of stating the question: but we confess that we expected a more comprehensive view of it from one who is a veteran in parliamentary warfare, and who had been in a situation to hear the arguments brought forwards by various gentlemen in the House of Commons, with a power of reasoning and a range of inquiry that called on their opponents for something more than a recapitulation of common-place-assertions.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *Evidences of Revealed Religion, on a New and original Plan*; being an Appeal to Deists, on their own Principles of Argument. By Christophilus. 8vo. pp. 112. Sherwood and Co. 1814.

Though this writer urges no pretensions to learning, or literary talent, he offers a claim to notice, of which few learned advocates for Christianity perhaps can boast; namely, his having effected the conversion of a society of Deists by the arguments which are displayed in these Evidences. Assuming the truth of this statement, the tract before us may be said powerfully to recommend itself to attention. The author speaks of it as conducted on a plan which, he believes, was never before attempted, since he puts the Deist on the defensive, and defies him to account for the series of facts which he adduces, except by admitting the truth of Divine Revelation. These facts are the existence of the pure monotheistic worship of the Jews in the midst of idolatrous nations, and their existence as a distinct people in their subsequent dispersion;—the preservation of the New Testament by artful and designing priests, though contrary to their purpose, while spurious writings which were more in their favour were rejected;—the resurrection of Jesus, and the subsequent conduct of his apostles;—together with the progress of the Gospel in the first three centuries, through the humble agents whom it employed, notwithstanding the mighty obstacles with which they had to contend. Towards the conclusion, the author says:

‘I have here stated facts and effects, such as appear to me highly satisfactory, and I call upon those who deny the truth of the resurrection of Jesus, to assign adequate causes for such facts and effects, and particularly for the conduct of the apostles, who had seen their master put to death, contrary to their expectation, and in violation of all their prejudices; who had given up every hope of seeing him again, and even were unwilling to believe the fact of his resurrection, when reported to them by those who declared they had seen him; yet in a very few weeks are so convinced of its reality, as to enter the city where the crucifixion took place, and (admitting the resurrection to be false) where the body might be produced to their confusion, and there *publicly* charging the high-priest, council, rulers, and people, with having been the murderers of a man whom they asserted to have risen from the dead; and this, whether true or false, at the hazard of their lives—I say, I call for an adequate cause for such conduct, independent of that which they have assigned, viz. that they had seen, conversed, and eaten with him, and knew him to be the same person who had been put to death.’

Good

Good as this reasoning is, we cannot allow it to be new, because we have often witnessed a similar mode of address to Deists: Again, to the same effect, Christophilus says :

‘ We see then a religion established throughout the whole civilized world by twelve illiterate men and their followers, in opposition to the power of the magistrate, the priest, and the people ; in opposition to an idolatrous worship, that had spread among all mankind, and intermingled itself with all their prejudices, their passions, interests, and inclinations, and succeeding in counteracting them all without the aid of power, money, interest, or learning. We see a religion taught to all the different people of the empire of Rome, though divided into innumerable nations and languages, by men, who, if Christianity be not true, knew but one language, unless they had learned others after they had commenced impostors ; but if they were capable of learning all the languages of the civilized world, and if without the aid of printing they met with such rapid success, under all the formidable circumstances to which they were exposed ; how happens it that the missionaries sent to the Chinese and Indians meet with so little success ; how is it that they find such difficulty in learning a single language, when assisted by books, which printing furnishes so abundantly, when they are not only tolerated in some countries where they go, but in others are sanctioned by the ruling powers, and supported by the contributions of the wealthy of their own country ?’

These passages will shew that the writer knows how to manage his argument, and many will approve the ability and zeal which he displays in the defence of revealed religion : but, when he enumerates the articles which he does not mean to defend, not considering them as parts of revealed religion, he must count on losing some of his admirers : because the general body of Christian believers will think that he has given Christianity a most unmerciful paring.

‘ I do not mean to defend the articles, creeds, or dogmas, of established churches, or of any of those sects and parties who take their religion from the priest ; — I do not mean to defend sacraments, pulpit-preaching, public social worship, nor an order of men called priests or preachers ; as the administrators of religion ; — I do not mean to defend the doctrine of the Trinity, the miraculous conception, original sin, atonement, predestination, or endless torment ; — I do not mean to defend the Bible as the word of God, and as being all written by Divine inspiration, because I am fully convinced that the Scriptures do not teach or lay claim to any such things.’

After these deductions, Mr. Christophilus’s knot of Deists may admit his Christianity without being put much out of their own way.

Art. 21. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Colchester, in the Diocese of London, in the Year 1813.* By J. Jefferson, A.M. and F.A.S. Archdeacon. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

On these occasions, the clergy are called to consider the exigencies of the church and the complexion of the times, that they may be prepared to secure the Establishment against danger, as well as to maintain “ the faith once delivered to the saints.” If Mr. Jefferson addresses the clergy of his archdeaconry with great modesty, he

he fails not in energy; and, as a true guardian of the church, he is watchful over her interests. He would promote religious liberty, but not *emancipation*; and he would encourage the diffusion of religious knowledge, yet cannot consent to unite in the distribution of Bibles with those who are professedly not of the established fold, and he calls on the clergy to reflect whether they ought to lend their countenance to Bible-Societies formed of heterogeneous sects. As individuals, and as a body, they are exhorted to promote schools on Dr. Bell's plan, which will draw together the whole influence of the church, and which will prove, in the end, 'a rising *en masse* in support of the Establishment.'—We do not perceive that the two liberal schemes of instructing the children of the poor in the principles of religion, and of distributing Bibles to the poor of all classes, are adverse to each other; and we mark with concern, among the members of the Establishment, a growing dislike to the Bible-Society on the old principle that *the Jews ought to have no dealings with the Samaritans*.

Art. 22. *A Letter to the London Society for promoting Christianity among the Jews*: containing Strictures on the Letter of a Jewish Correspondent, by the Author of "Remarks on David Levi's Dissertations on the Prophecies respecting the Messiah." 8vo. pp. 31. Gale and Co. 1814.

Slow progress has yet been made in the conversion of the Jews, owing to the difficulty of bringing them and Christians to agree on the interpretation of Scripture. At the end of this letter, are printed "Objections against the Messiahship of Jesus," by a Jew; and the strictures of the Christian are kindly meant to convert the unbeliever: but they are more in the shape of preaching than of close argument, and seem as if meant rather to alarm the poor Israelite 'on the state of his soul' than to throw real light on his understanding. Such an address to the Jews is not adapted to serve the purpose for which it was written.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 23. *The Bioscope, or Dial of Life, explained*. To which are added, a Translation of St. Paulinus's Epistle to Celantia, on the Rule of Christian Life; and an elementary View of general Chronology; with a perpetual Solar and Lunar Calendar. By the Author of "The Christian Survey," &c. Crown 8vo. 12s. Boards. Miller.

All that has been hitherto said or written, on the improvement of time, seems to have produced very little effect. Men know that time will kill them, and they appear to devise no other way of taking their revenge than by trying to *kill time*. This Bioscope, however, is intended to point out a very different process; and we are confident of its beneficial operation, if the plan be adopted with serious perseverance. Here is exhibited, in a neat plate, the *Dial of Life*, being seven-eighths of a circle, divided into seven parts, and including in its several divisions, 1. Childhood, 2. Youth, 3. Manhood, 4. Vigour, 5. Maturity, 6. Decline, 7. Decay. The unfilled space of the circle, or that which is between the two extremities of the scale, viz. Childhood and Decay, is marked by *ETERNITY*, because human life begins

begins from *Eternity past*, and ends in *Eternity to come*. A moveable index is affixed to this moral horologe, to be pointed to that part of the dial which marks the period of life of the person who consults it. As the mechanism is very simple, it is easily described and apprehended: but the moral benefits of this Bioscope may not, it is thought, be so obvious; and therefore the author employs many pages in elucidating its *practical use*. The observations which occur in this part of the work, if not new, display strong sense and energy. Dr. Young's Night-Thoughts are repeatedly quoted, at which we are not surprised, because no writer has with more piety and true sublimity urged the importance of *Time*.

'If I mistake not,' says the author, 'the aspect of the dial alone, presented for the first time to a mind capable of any serious reflection, must awaken some *new* and *unexpected* sensations. That unfinished circle, representing to our view the utmost averaged measure of time in which we can have any *personal* concern in the affairs of this earth; sending the memory back to the beginning of life, and the imagination forward to its termination; exhibiting a discernible *end*, and that end in immediate contact with *ETERNITY*; that aspect, alone, must of necessity work a strong effect upon any ingenuous and contemplative spirit, even before we proceed to consider the *particular uses* to which it may be applied. For,

'Should not THE DIAL strike us as we gaze?
 Portentous as *the written wall* which struck,
 O'er midnight bowls, the proud Assyrian pale?
 Like that THE DIAL speaks, and points to *THEE*:
 "O MAN, *thy kingdom is departing from THEE!*"
 Its silent language such; nor need'st thou call
 Thy Magi, to decipher what it means.

'But if, from this general survey, we proceed to direct the index to that particular degree upon the scale, which answers to the actual year of *our own age*, a new, and a livelier interest, will be immediately awakened; for, in beholding our *present* station on the dial, we instantly, and in the same view, discern all the *past* and *future* of our earthly being. And although that perception, to be of any moral effect, must be an act of the mind itself, yet we shall be sensible, that the mental vision will be very powerfully assisted towards that act, by the visible figure presented to the sight.

'And here we may observe, by the way, that in pointing the index, no prevarication can possibly avail us; no temptation can prompt us to that monstrous and despicable folly, the *concealing* or *falsifying* our true age. For, who would dare to direct the hand to a *false* point? False with respect to his own intimate knowledge, and false also with respect to the corresponding scale, in the knowledge of GOD? There is, therefore, no escape from the authority of truth; and whether we point the hand or not, the eye, both of body and mind, must instantly discern the point at which it *ought* to stand.' —

'By the *habitual* use of the Bioscope, we shall be rescued from that almost universal, and pernicious deception, which seduces us to regard life as *one continued now*, or present moment indefinitely extended.

tended. This is the grand illusion, by which our minds first become disunited from our years.'

Many other important observations are made, which our limits will not allow us to specify.

The letter of Paulinus to Celantia, here translated, is to be found among the collection of Jerom's Epistles, and was formerly erroneously ascribed to him. It affords an excellent rule of Christian life, and is in fact more truly evangelical than any thing which in modern days passes under the name of Evangelism.

We leave the elementary views of Chronology, and the tables of History, &c. at the end of the volume, to speak for themselves. Of their utility in education, no doubt can be entertained.

Art. 24. *A New Covering to the Velvet Cushion.* 12mo. pp. 180. 5s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Co. 1815.

We saw with half an eye that Mr. Cunningham, when he amused himself with his "Velvet Cushion," was not *playing on velvet*, but that his religious novel, with all its seeming pleasantry, was calculated to excite controversy, and would probably in the same style of writing provoke a Rowland for his Oliver. Our surmise has been soon verified; and, if a cushion may be supposed to hear and relate occurrences which took place on it and near it, a cover to the same cushion may, on the same assumption, be considered as capable of continuing the history. Know, then, gentle reader, that this *New Covering* rubs very hard on the old Velvet Cushion; or, in other words, that the doctrines of the one and of the other are at variance. The Covering is put on to suit the worn-out Cushion for a *Dissenting pulpit*, and in this situation it attacks the rites and practices of dear Mother Church most unmercifully. To crown the whole, the author of this scrap of fiction dedicates it to the chair of St. Peter, in imitation of Mr. C.; who, with more zeal than wisdom, placed his work on the altar of the Established Church; and the present writer then submits this difficult question to the vicar of Harrow: 'Whether those who acknowledge themselves to "*owe to Popery almost every thing that deserves to be called by the name of a Church* *," and yet depart from her communion; — or those, who, rejecting *the principles* of Popery, reject also the profession of those principles; — be the most ingenuous opponents, or the most consistent with themselves?' After the above admission, such a question is fair: but we do not approve of making tales the vehicles of theological controversy; and we should suppose that Mr. Cunningham is, by this time, sorry for having lent his sanction to such a deviation from discretion and good taste.

The Greek passage at p. 22., as it is quoted for mere parade, may remain incorrect.

Art. 25. *The Builder's Assistant*, and complete Ready Reckoner; comprising a new System of Duodecimal Arithmetic or Cross Multiplication, &c. Also, a Variety of newly constructed Tables. Showing the Amount of any Number of Feet and Inches; Yards and Feet; Squares and Feet; and Rods and Feet; at any given

Price. By Thomas Lovell, Building Surveyor, &c. Huntingdon. 12mo. pp. 342. 6s. Boards. Baldwin.

The utility of a work of this kind depends chiefly on the arrangement and accuracy of the tables. On the latter quality we cannot be supposed to be able to offer any decided opinion: but, as far as we have examined the present volume in this respect, we are inclined to think that it has been executed with great care; and, with regard to arrangement, it is certainly as convenient as the nature of the work would admit.—The tables are preceded by a treatise on Duodecimals, in which the rules of addition, subtraction, and multiplication, are fully explained, and illustrated by several examples.

In the first table, which occupies 116 pages, is contained the price of any number of yards, feet, and inches under 100, from $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 1l. per yard, or foot. Table 2. exhibits the price of any number of squares and feet, within the same limit, from 4s. per square to 6l. 6s. per square; and table 3. gives the price of any number of feet to 272, from 3l. to 6l. 6s. per rod, and from that sum to 25l. 10s. per rod. Then follows what the author calls a scantling table, shewing what length of scantling of different dimensions, from 2 inches by 2 inches to 11 inches by 12, will be required to make a cubic foot. On the whole, we are inclined to think that this will be found an useful work to those persons for whom it is designed; and its price, considering the number of pages and tables, is very reasonable.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 26. *The Sinfulness of War illustrated and enforced:*—delivered before a Society of Christians, of the Unitarian Denomination, at their Chapel in Southampton, Dec. 18. 1814. By Benjamin Travers. 8vo. Printed at Southampton.

The observations made in this discourse are manly and sensible, and in perfect accordance with the precepts and spirit of the Gospel, but not with the spirit and temper of these times; when governments seem to love war better than peace, and the upper classes of the people are attracted more by the vanity which belongs to *Grand Crosses* than by the motto of Love which is inscribed on the *Cross of Christ*.

Art. 27. *The Proofs of the Spirit, or Considerations on Revivalism;* preached at St. Mary's Chapel, Penzance, April 24. 1814. By C. Val. Le Grice, M.A., Perpetual Curate of Penzance. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Persons of warm religious feelings are partial, in proportion to the inward satisfaction which they enjoy, to the means of their excitement, and are not pleased with those preachers who remind them of the delusion to which these feelings subject them. Mr. Le Grice, therefore, does not expect the thanks of those to whom these considerations are addressed; yet he should have reflected that they would have had less reason for anger, had he not mentioned 'hypocrisy in their expression of feelings,' since this intimation conveys a heavy charge. His argument would have been equally strong, and less objectionable, had he confined himself to an exposure of the self-delusion to which these feelings subject religionists, who, though not hypocritical, are nevertheless mistaken. The preacher very truly observes

observes that the *groanings* mentioned in Rom. viii. 26. have no reference to the agitations, impulses, and devotional noise practised by some enthusiasts; and that religion does not consist in loud groans and frantic postures, but in the sanctification and government of the heart. Such a hint was sufficient; and, had he spared the invective in which he subsequently indulges, he would have acted more in character with the true Christian divine, who should reprove with meekness.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Editor of the Monthly Review:

Sir,

21. Tooke's Court, Chancery Lane, 20th May, 1815.

In the last number of your Review, while noticing the work intitled *Annotations on the Four Gospels*, which was printed at my office, I observe that you attribute the compilation of it to some member of my family. In justice, therefore, to the author, who withholds his name, I find it expedient to state that none of my relations took any part in those volumes, nor am I responsible for them but in my professional capacity. I wish indeed to take this opportunity of correcting a prevalent misapprehension, which makes either myself or my immediate connexions accountable as editors or authors for the merit of those works which may be printed at my office. This is a 'painful pre-eminence' to which I have no claim, and it may prove alike injurious to others and to myself. I shall deem it a favor if you will admit this annunciation, that of the works, periodical or otherwise, which bear my name as printer, the typographic department only, unless when differently stated, is attributable to my establishment. My uncle, the Rev. Edward Valpy, is avowedly the editor of the *Greek Testament*, with Latin notes, on the same plan as Hardy; and the work will shortly make its appearance. My father's name is affixed to all his works, though all (as, for instance, the *Address to his Parishioners*,) have not been so fortunate as to attract from you that notice which would have been highly gratifying to him, in a literary journal to which he has been a subscriber for the last 40 years.

I am, Sir,

Your humble Servant,

A. J. VALPY.

A poem intitled "The Modern Dunciad" was mentioned with praise in our last Number, and we noticed a report that it was attributed to the author of "The Pursuits of Literature." We have since, however, received a private letter from the writer, which enables us to contradict that report; though we are not empowered to state his real name, which has been thus communicated to us.

We believe that "The Guerrilla Chief" has not reached us, but we will make farther search respecting it.

It is not intended to overlook the object of Z. P.'s note, though we have been obliged to delay it.

'A Constant Reader' speaks of a work of which we never before heard.

* * The APPENDIX to the lxxvith Vol. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains the usual portion of FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title, Table of Contents, and Index* for the Volume.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For J U N E, 1815.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the Wernerian Natural History Society*, Vol. II. Part I. For the Years 1811, 1812, 1813. With Nineteen Engravings. 8vo. pp. 264. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

WE have already made a concise report of the contents of the first volume published by this corps of naturalists, (Vol. lxvi. p. 41.) and we shall now take a glance at the continuation of their labours; only premising that the Society ‘does not hold itself *as* responsible for the facts and opinions which may be advanced on the various topics of Natural History that are discussed.’

Outlines of the Mineralogy of the Ochil Hills. By Charles Mackenzie, Esq. F.L.S. &c. — The hilly range, which forms the subject of this paper, stretches from near Parton Craigs, on the right bank of the Tay, through Perthshire, to the vicinity of Dunblane in the county of Stirling; describing a course of more than fifty miles. Its loftiest summits occur to the westward, where Bencleugh and Dalmyatt rise upwards of 2000 feet above the level of the sea. The individual hills which compose the groupe are generally long, round-backed, and either cultivated or covered with green pasture to the very top; which last circumstance is obviously more desirable to the proprietor than to the geologist, who is thus frequently precluded from ascertaining their structure with any degree of precision. With some remarkable exceptions, their acclivities are rapid, and face the north; and their declivities, which are usually very gentle, are to the south-east: the strata also dip to that point, with a direction from north-east to south-west. The whole district abounds in valleys and springs. The fundamental rock appears to be a red sand-stone; and the other composing rocks are here denominated, Amygdaloid, Grey Sand-stone, Lime-stone, Slate-clay, Clay-stone, Tuff, Basaltic Clink-stone, Green-stone, Clay-stone Porphyry, Felspar Porphyry, and Compact Felspar. In different parts of the groupe, these rocks present various positions, alternations, and gradations, which we cannot stay to particularize. In

one part of the range, the Basaltic clink-stone occasionally exhibits pentagonal columns of more than a hundred feet in height, and from five to seven feet in diameter, rising abruptly from the low lands on the south bank of the Tay. A beautiful brick-red and flesh-coloured compact felspar forms the caps of some of the smaller hills. Near Cupar, Mr. M. says, 'it occurs so abundantly, as to be the sole material for repairing the roads. It appears to be the newest member of the series, and to correspond both in its individual characters and in its geognostic relations with the felspar of the Pentland Hills, where it was first noticed, forming distinct masses, by Professor Jameson. At the summit of Lucklaw, this felspar passes into horn-stone. A solitary bed of it is to be found in the alternating series of sand-stone, clay-stone, and tuff, in Wormit Bay.' — The veins which traverse the Ochil Hills consist of calcareous spar, iron, cobalt, silver, (both these last are now very rare,) copper, and lead. Owing to the neglected state of the mines, Mr. Mackenzie's account of the metallic ores is very scanty and imperfect.

A Geological Account of the Southern District of Stirlingshire, commonly called the Campsie Hills, with a few Remarks relative to the two prevailing Theories as to Geology, and some Examples given illustrative of these Remarks. By Lieutenant-Colonel Imrie, F.R.S. Edinburgh. — This tract of hills is about twenty-two miles in length, and of variable breadth; its central or highest points scarcely exceed twelve or fifteen hundred feet above the level of the sea; and its general surface exhibits remarkable undulations. Each hill has a considerable degree of curvature, with the convex side presented to the west. On their eastern sides, they rise with an equal acclivity, of from 20 to 30 degrees: but their summits are slightly rounded. At the bases of their precipitate portions, is a long and rapid slope of debris, frequently covered with vegetation. The troughs between the undulations generally form narrow dales, but some of them may be denominated valleys. At the base of the highest are the sources of the Carron and the Endrick, the former of which discharges itself into the Forth and the latter into Loch-Lomond:

'As far as this tract of country has been dipped into, the geological materials of which it is formed are as follow: a surface of vegetable soil, — trap, — sand-stone, — lime-stone, — shale or slate-clay, — blue clays of various tints and of various consistencies, — bituminous shales, — clay iron-ores, some of which are thinly stratified, and others are imbedded in the shale in lenticular forms, — coal, and clay-marl; all of which materials have been arranged by nature in the order in which they are here placed, from the surface-soil downwards.'

The

The trap consists of hornblend, compact felspar, a few scales of mica, with some minute particles of iron pyrites, and an admixture of ferruginous particles. It is the prevailing rock of the district, and sometimes occurs of a great thickness, measuring from seventy to a hundred feet. The abrupt faces of the hills generally display a tendency to columnar forms, but very irregular in size, sides, and angles :

‘ Some of these columns appear to be jointed, but these apparent joints have no regularity in position or direction ; and these appearances seem only produced by accidental cracks which cross some of the columns. The amorphous part of the trap, which sometimes is interposed between the columnar trap and the sand-stone, is of the same composition as the upper bed, but their component parts differ in their proportional quantities ; that is to say, that the under bed contains a much greater proportion of iron than the upper does, and their quantities of hornblende and felspar also vary. When both of these beds are equally exposed to the external air, the under one is seen to be much more under the influence of decomposition than the upper one.’

Of the beds of clay, most are of a dark blue colour, and very tenacious. From the water-worn fragments of primitive rocks dispersed on these beds, from the scratched and grooved appearance of the surface of the trap in places where the super-incumbent soil has been carried off, and from the circumstance of many of the rock-masses presenting their principal or most projecting angle towards the west or north-west, Colonel Imrie infers the direction of a powerful current, of which the action, he presumes, produced these effects. — From his familiar acquaintance with the volcanic territory of Italy, he deems himself warranted to assert that the trap-formation of the Campsie Hills offers no indication of having been under the action of subterraneous fire. When he admits that its prismatic forms may result either from aqueous or igneous solution, he adopts the sentiments of some of the most enlightened geologists: but his attempt to explain the production of basaltic columns, by the hackneyed hypothesis of *sbrinking*, strikes us as unsatisfactory. On several occasions, we have hinted at the more plausible doctrine of rude crystallization ; which, in like manner, may be effected either in an aqueous menstruum or in consequence of igneous fusion : but to the formal discussion of these controverted points we cannot at present diverge, without losing sight of the object before us, which is rather to convey an idea of the contents of this volume, than to defend or impugn the tenets of its authors. — Colonel Imrie appears to have explored his range of investigation with a calm and dispassionate eye: but we had expected from his pen some

account of the aluminous schistus, which, if our information be correct, occurs in the neighbourhood of the village of Campsie.

Chemical Analysis of a Species of Magnetic Iron-Ore from Greenland. By Thomas Thomson, M.D. F.R.S. L. and E.—A hundred grains of this ore yielded 126.5 grains of iron, 4.2 grains of white oxyd of titanium, and 2.4 grains of silica. It hence results that the substance in question is not a mixture of black and red oxyds of iron; — an inference which suggests to Dr. Thomson some ingenious views relative to the composition of magnetic ore in general.

Description of a Sword-Fish found in the Frith of Forth in June 1811. By William Elford Leach, Esq. F.L.S. &c.—The specimen to which this communication refers corresponds nearly with that which was described by Rondelet, and is accordingly designed *Xiphias Rondeletii*.

Some Observations on the Genus Squalus of Linné, with Descriptions and Outline Figures of two British Species. By the Same.—In order to aid the extrication of the *Squalinida*, Mr. Leach divides them into two sections; the first including those that are furnished with an oval fin, and the second, those that are destitute of such a member. Under the first, he ranks the genera *Squalus* and *Galeus*; and under the second, *Squatina* and *Acanthias*. This proposed arrangement is accompanied with some pertinent remarks, and with descriptions of *Galeus Mustelus* and *Squalus Selanonus*: but we find no allusion to the elaborate exposition of this family by Broussonet, inserted, we believe, in the 26th volume of the *Journal de Physique*.

An Essay on Sponges, with Descriptions of all the Species that have been discovered on the Coast of Great Britain. By George Montagu, Esq. F.L.S. &c.—Like many other contributions to natural science from the same respectable quarter, this essay will be found eminently intitled to the notice of the curious: since, without presuming to have exhausted a subject so obscure and delicate, the author has made many and valuable additions to the discoveries of his predecessors. From his list of sponges, he excludes the reputed fresh-water sorts, the *cristatella* of Lamarck, because he conceives them to be of a distinct nature, and probably the ova of insects, connected by glutinous filaments. Assuming that motion is no essential predicate of vitality, he thus proceeds:

‘Whether motion has ever been discovered or not in any species of sponge, is not I conceive of so much importance as some naturalists would appear to consider. Those who are solicitous in their inquiries after the animals which they have supposed to construct the vesicular fabric of sponges, and have expressed their surprise, that in
this

this age of cultivated science, no one should yet have discovered them, must have taken a very limited view of matter possessing vitality, and have grounded their hypothesis only upon supposed analogy. Why should it be concluded that sponges are only the *nidi* of insects or vermes; or why should not organic matter, possessing vitality without action, exist? If these philosophers expect to find polypes, or vermes of any kind, to be the inhabitants of sponges, they will be deceived. The true character of spongia is that of a living, inactive, gelatinous flesh, supported by innumerable cartilaginous or corneous fibres or spiculæ, most commonly ramified or reticulated, and furnished more or less with external pores or small mouths, which absorb the water, and which is conveyed by an infinity of minute channels or capillary tubes throughout every part of the body, and is there decomposed, and the oxygen absorbed as its principal nourishment, similar to the decomposition of air in the pulmonary organs of what are called perfect animals. *

‘The food of sponges must be similar to that of plants; for a sponge has no more power to digest gross bodies than a fucus or a conferva; and nothing can be more admirably adapted to a gaseous aliment than the construction of a sponge. The conformation of a sponge better entitles it to the appellation of *sea-lungs*, than any other marine production; since the water absorbed by its capillary tubes becomes as greatly divided, as air respired by pulmonary organs, and thus, by such an extensive surface offered to the water, decomposition may be effected in the same way as air is decomposed in the lungs of terrestrial animals.’

For the sake of more commodious arrangement, the essayist divides the genus into five sections, or families; viz. the *Branched*, *Digitated*, *Tubular*, *Compact*, and *Orbicular*. Of the thirty-nine articles of his descriptive catalogue, a few are proposed with diffidence, and the synonyms of others are quoted with hesitation. Not more, perhaps, than fifty sorts of sponge, domestic and exotic, have been particularized; and some of them in terms too vague or superficial for the purpose of accurate scientific distinctions. A few of the alleged species, indeed, seem to hold an intermediate station between *Spongia* and *Alcyonium* on the one hand, or to blend with the vegetable kingdom on the other; the greatest difficulty occurring in discriminating them from some of the *Byssi* and *Conferve*. Their odour, when burned, is perhaps in many cases the only criterion of their animal nature: but we cannot, at all times, appeal to this as an infallible test, since some plants diffuse odours perfectly analogous to those of animals, as the carrion-plant, *cynoglossum*, some of the *fungi*, &c.; and *Spongia lichenoïdes*, of Pallas, on the contrary, is said to yield a vegetable smell. In the present immature state of zoophytology, then,

* All this may be true, but is not well expressed. *Rev.*

we would beg leave to recommend Mr. Montagu's distinctions and definitions to the consideration of every student of this interesting department of Natural History.

Mineralogical Description of Tinto. By Dr. Macknight. — Tinto is an insulated hill in Lanarkshire, which rises about 2300 feet above the level of the sea, and commands an extensive and delightful prospect. Being clothed with pasture to the summit, the geologist can scarcely detect its structure with any degree of certainty: but Dr. Macknight presumes, on strong collateral evidence, that it is of secondary formation, or, in the language of Werner, a floetz mountain, superincumbent on grey wacke. Its prevailing rock seems to be a greenish-grey conglomerate, having a basis of clay, and containing rounded fragments, from the size of a grain to that of a large ball, of transition-rocks; with nodules of quartz, mica, felspar, splintery horn-stone, and felspar passing into conchoidal horn-stone.

‘ Over the conglomerate, which crops out at different heights, along the base on the south side, masses of clay-stone, green-stone, and green-stone passing into clink-stone and porphyry-slate, successively appear, till we arrive at the summit of the mountain, which is found to consist of compact felspar, and felspar-porphry, with crystals of quartz, mica, felspar, and hornblende. The felspar rocks also contain thin layers or beds of reddish-coloured quartz.’—

‘ The characters and geological relations of Tinto seem to furnish an illustration of a very important fact; namely, that there are alternations between the oldest members of the floetz rocks, and the newest portions of the transition-series, corresponding to a similar relation, which has been observed between the newest primitive and the oldest transition rocks. We thus learn, that the newest members, for example, of the primitive, do not immediately cease, or at once give place entirely to the transition-rocks; but that, most frequently, before these are found completely to prevail in the order of succession, alternations, as now mentioned, take place. And the remark may be generalized respecting the junctions of all the successive classes in the system, down to those of the latest periods.’

Short Account of the Rocks which occur in the Neighbourhood of Dundee. By the Rev. John Fleming. — The rocks here particularized are, porphyry, sand-stone, and green-stone: but the irregularities in their relative positions will be best comprehended by the references to a rough sketch which illustrates the text.

Observations on the Mineralogy of the Neighbourhood of St. Andrew's, in Fife. By the Same. — The strata of sand-stone, coal, slate-clay, and clay iron-stone, in this district, seldom exhibit any regular line of bearing, but are generally distributed in basin-shaped or saddle-shaped undulations. Each bed, too, is subject

subject to great variation in point of depth. When adverting to the slate-clay, Mr. Fleming suggests the following important practical hint to farmers :

‘ I think it proper in this place to mention a fact not generally known, that slate-clay forms a fertilizing manure to sandy soils, by supplying the requisite portion of aluminous earth. In the neighbourhood of Kirkcaldy, there are several fields of sandy soil which rest upon sand-stone. To these fields, slate-clay and bituminous shale have been applied as manure, and with success: they were, previous to this application, unproductive; they now yield good crops of grain and grass. To the west of St. Andrew’s, there are extensive tracts of soil, principally composed of sand. Were the slate-clay, so abundant among the rocks in the neighbourhood of the city, spread upon these grounds, the most beneficial effects would result from the application. The ground would become firmer, the soil more retentive of moisture, and better able to resist the drought of summer. Ignorance and prejudice may prevent some from following the example of the farmers in the neighbourhood of Kirkcaldy; but I have no hesitation in asserting, that its imitation in many places of the coal districts of Scotland, where such soils and such rocks abound, would greatly contribute to increase the food of man and beast.’

Within a short distance of St. Andrew’s, some of the newest floetz rocks, as basalt, clink-stone, felspar, &c. occur, resting on those of the old red sand-stone, and of the coal-formation.

‘ The principal rock of this formation is trap-tuff, similar in composition to the rock of the same kind which occurs in Arthur’s Seat. It contains globular pieces of quartz and granite, which have been water-worn; — likewise fragments of grey wacke, floetz sand-stone, and lime-stone containing petrifications of entrochi. Small pieces of augite and felspar are likewise contained in it. The inclosed fragments of the older rocks are sometimes of considerable size, measuring two or three feet entire.

‘ It generally happens, that the fragments of the oldest rocks, when observed imbedded in the newer formations, are much rounded and water-worn: whereas the fragments of the newer rocks are rather angular, and seem to have suffered less from attrition: — a circumstance which points out with considerable precision the relative antiquity of rocks, and is entitled to a more careful examination than has hitherto been bestowed upon it.

‘ The most curious circumstance which attracted my notice, in examining this bed of tuff, was the rock, which is well known in the neighbourhood of St. Andrew’s by the name of the Rock and Spindle, and from which it is distant about a mile and a half.

‘ This rock is about forty feet in height. Towards the base, there is a spherical concretion of basalt, in the form of five or six-sided lengthened pyramids meeting at the apex, giving to the mass a stellate appearance. The mass is likewise divided into concentric layers. The basalt contains crystals of augite, with olivine and glassy felspar. This concretion of basalt is surrounded with the tuff, into which it gradually

gradually passes; and must have been completely enveloped by it, previous to its partial wasting away by the action of the sea and atmosphere. It may be mentioned in this place, that the regular basaltic columns at the Ely are a portion of a spherical concretion contained in trap-tuff. Here the concretion is only about ten feet in diameter: at the Ely it is several hundred feet.'

Meteorological Observations on a Greenland Voyage in the Ship Resolution, of Whitby, in 1811. By William Scoresby, jun.

A Meteorological Journal kept during a Greenland Voyage, 1812. By the same. — These valuable journals are principally composed of tabular registers of the latitude, longitude, thermometer, barometer, winds, weather, and meteors, and the appearance of birds, and other animals. A striking proof is annexed of the importance of connected observations of the thermometer and barometer, at sea.

Analyse du Spath perlé, (Chaux carbonatée ferrifère perlée d'Häüy.) By W. Hisinger, Esq. Stockholm. — It appears that a hundred parts of this substance yielded, on analysis, lime 27,97, magnesia 21,14, oxyd of iron 3,40, oxyd of manganese 1,50, carbonic acid 44,60; whence M. Hisinger is induced to class it among the magnesiferous carbonates of lime.

Outlines of the Mineralogy of the Pentland Hills. By Professor Jameson. — The present portion of the learned Professor's geological observations refers to that part of the Pentland range which is situated in the county of Edinburgh, or Mid-Lothian, comprizing an extent of eight miles. Two of the hills belonging to the groupe are 1700 feet above the level of the sea; and most of them are of a rounded form, but a few are conical, and some tabular. They consist of floetz and transition-rocks, usually covered with alluvial matters. The transition-rocks which have been remarked are, Clay-slate, Grey-wacke, Green-stone, and Porphyry. The clay-slate is greenish grey, or greyish black, occurring in strata which run from S. W. to N. E., and are nearly vertical. Its structure is sometimes more or less curved, or waved; the result, as the Professor supposes, of crystallization. The grey-wacke is of a very small granular texture, and is composed of felspar, quartz, and sometimes a little mica. The thickness of its beds varies from a few inches to two or three feet. From the intimate combination of its ingredients, it appears to be a chemical, and not a mechanical deposit. The green stone presents the usual characters of that rock, and occurs in beds which occasionally exceed twelve feet in thickness, and are situated in clay-slate. Certain portions of the felspar-porphyry, from their connection

connection with the clay-slate, are presumed to belong to the transition-series.

The floetz-rocks, which constitute the predominant ingredients in this department of the Pentland Hills, are, Conglomerate, Sand-stone, Clink-stone, Clink-stone-porphry, Amygdaloidal Clink-stone-porphry, Green-stone, Compact felspar, Clay-stone-tuff, and Porphry.

‘ The Conglomerate, which is very abundant, is composed of roundish, angular, and other shaped portions of quartz, grey-wacke, grey-wacke-slate, porphry, felspar, flinty-slate, common jasper, horn-stone, and mica. The portions are from the size of a man’s head and upwards to that of a pea, and the larger masses are connected together by a basis or paste of the smaller pieces, and these again are joined together without any basis, just as stones are which have been deposited from a state of chemical solution. It varies in hardness ; two principal varieties may be distinguished, a hard and soft. In the hard variety, the basis and the included portions run into each other, and are so crystalline and firmly joined together, that it is only by means of violence that we can break off masses. This variety generally forms the mass of entire strata ; at other times we find it intermixed in cotemporaneous portions in the softer variety. The softer variety is so loose in its texture, that we can readily break it with the hammer, and even extract the imbedded portions with the fingers. It occurs, in general, more abundantly than the hard variety.

‘ The very small granular varieties of this rock, which are principally composed of felspar and quartz, are very nearly allied to the grey-wacke of this district ; indeed, in some instances, it is difficult to distinguish the one from the other in simple specimens *.’

As to the Sand-stone, it is composed of quartz, (its principal ingredient,) felspar, a reddish-brown clay, which colours the mass, and small silver-white scales of mica. Its texture varies from fine to coarse granular. It rests on the conglomerate ; with which, also, it seems to alternate in regular strata. Of the compact felspar, a remarkable variety is sometimes found, ‘ in which beautiful globular concretions of light red-coloured felspar are imbedded in dark-red felspar. These concretions are from one-sixth of an inch to an inch in diameter. Other globular concretions occur in the felspar ; these are composed of concentric lamellar layers of red felspar, and of a green-coloured substance, which is probably very minute granular hornblende, either pure or intermixed with felspar.’—The clay-stone-tuff includes visible and variously shaped frag-

‘ * If the Grey-wacke of the Pentland is a chemical deposite, the same must be the case with the Conglomerate rock described in the text.’

ments of clay-stone, clay-stone-porphry, conchoidal hornstone, porphyritic horn-stone, compact felspar, and red flint.

It appears that the rolled alluvial masses, with gravel, sand, and clay, have been mostly detached from the neighbouring rocks: but, among these, are sometimes observed large masses of a primitive grey-wacke, which does not exist *in situ* nearer than the vicinity of Dunkeld, in Perthshire.

Of the diligence and accuracy with which Mr. Jameson prosecutes his geological researches, the paper before us affords a most favourable testimony; and we cannot refrain from remarking that, in the progress of his inquiries, he has been led to ascribe greater importance than heretofore to the chemical agency of nature. This propensity is still more decidedly evinced in the next communication, intitled,

On Conglomerated or Brecciated Rocks. By the Same. — Assuming as a test of the chemical deposition of certain reputed breccias, that their fragments graduate into the base in which they are immersed, the author ingeniously endeavours to shew that, in the conglomerates of gneiss, of mica-slate, and of granite,—in the conglomerated rock which accompanies primitive porphyry,—and in the *verde antique*, or brecciated primitive lime-stone,—the imbedded portions are only apparent fragments, being intimately mixed with their basis, at their junction with it; and that the fragments present the same want of definition in grey-wacke, transition lime-stone, sandstone-conglomerate, sand-stone, and trap-tuff.

On Porphyry. By the Same. — Besides the five kinds of porphyry indicated by Werner, and which all belong to the primitive series of rocks, Mr. Jameson here points out others, pertaining both to the transition and the floetz formations, having either a clay-stone or felspar basis, and including crystals of felspar, with sometimes grains and crystals of quartz, scales of mica, and crystals of hornblend. Floetz pitch-stone-porphry occurs in the island of Arran.

Mineralogical Observations and Speculations. By the Same. — The topics discussed, or rather slightly touched, in this short essay, are, *Stratification, Veins, and Coal*; and, in the consideration of each, we find a much greater latitude of reasoning, or of conjecture, than the complexion of the Professor's geological creed would naturally have induced us to anticipate. The metallic nature of the nucleus of our globe has long been regarded as a probable inference, deducible from the physical doctrine of gravitation: but Mr. Jameson boldly asserts it as a matter of fact. Nay, he even hints at the intense degrees of *heat* which may have occasioned *fusions* somewhat resembling those that have been caused by *volcanoes*. Still more are we
astonished

astonished to find that he betrays a partiality to the notion that the earth itself is a polyëdron, of which the strata are the folia. Here is crystallography with a vengeance! When a similar sentiment was hazarded by some of the French philosophers, it was observed that the crystallization of masses of heterogeneous matter was not a tenet recognized in the laboratory: but, at the same time, we may be permitted to remark that the fiat of the Almighty may as easily impress a polyëdral form on a planet, as it may call the smallest particle of matter into existence. At all events, the rapid and contemporaneous production of many strata and veins, which were formerly supposed to have been slowly deposited at separate and very distant intervals of time, is an idea which seems to rest on better evidence than mere conjecture; and the leading facts and appearances, which may be quoted in support of it, are distinctly stated in the present paper.

The vegetable origin of coal, though ably combated by Gensanne, Genneté, de Bournon, Patrin, &c., has of late been somewhat tamely admitted by most of our eminent chemists and mineralogists. For the following reasons, Mr. Jameson believes that glance-coal and black-coal are chemical deposits, but that brown-coal is formed of vegetable remains:

‘ 1. Glance-coal occurs in primitive country, in gneiss, mica-slate, and clay-slate, and is so associated with these rocks, as to be of contemporaneous formation with them.

‘ 2. Glance-coal occurs also in transition rocks, where it is sometimes associated with vegetable remains, but these are few in number, and of but rare occurrence, and evidently bear the same relation to the coal which the petrifications of shells and corals, in the transition lime-stone, bear to the lime-stone in which they are contained.

‘ 3. Glance-coal occurs also in floetz rocks, and is accompanied with more vegetable remains than in transition country, just as the shells in floetz lime-stone are more numerous than in transition lime-stone.

‘ 4. Black-coal occurs only in floetz country, and there it is frequently associated with vegetable remains; but these do not bear a greater proportion to the coal than the shells, &c. in floetz lime-stone bear to the lime-stone.

‘ 5. Black-coal occurs in veins, and these are of contemporaneous formation with the basaltic or sand-stone rocks in which they are contained; a fact which proves, that, in this instance at least, coal is an original formation unconnected with vegetable remains.

‘ 6. Black-coal occurs in concentric lamellar concretions, a character which points out its crystalline nature.

‘ 7. Some varieties of black-coal appear to have a determinate form, thus indicating their deposition from a state of solution.

‘ 8. The vegetable origin of brown-coal is shewn by its whole mass being either entirely composed of vegetable remains, or by those remains occurring in it in a preponderating quantity.’

Observations on the Natural History of the Colymbus Immer. By Dr. Arthur Edmondston. — It appears from Dr. Edmondston's statements, that this bird has the power of flight, that it is an excellent diver, and that, though a regular migrant from Zetland, a straggling pair or two of the species occasionally breed in that country.

Contributions to the British Fauna. By the Rev. John Fleming, F.R.S. E. — The articles mentioned and briefly discussed by Mr. Fleming are, *Sorex fodiens*, *Pleuronecte punctatus*, *Lepas fascicularis*, *Hirudo verrucosa*, *Echinus miliaris*, *Lucernaria fascicularis*, *Caryophyllia cyathus*, *Fungia turbinata*, and *Flustra Ellisii*, most of which were known to be indigenous to our seas, though of rare occurrence; and the last mentioned is a non-descript.

Description and Analysis of a new Species of Lead-Ore from India. By Thomas Thomson, M.D. &c. — The ore, which forms the subject of this excellent analytical paper, was brought from Madras, where it is sold in the shops for medicinal purposes. It is of a blackish blue colour, with green stains interspersed; its fresh fracture exhibits the aspect of steel-grained galena; and its specific gravity seems to vary from 4.9 to 6.590. The analysis instituted by Dr. Thomson gave Lead 50.059, Copper 32.500, Iron 1.370, and Sulphur 11.228. If the loss (4.743) were sulphur, as the Doctor presumes it was, this ore may be regarded as a combination of the sulphurets of lead, copper, and iron.

Notice concerning the Structure of the Cells in the Combs of Bees and Wasps. By Dr. Barclay. — The peculiarity of structure, to which Dr. Barclay alludes, is the double nature of all the partitions between the different cells; so that, when the agglutinating matter of these double partitions is destroyed, each cell may be entirely separated from the rest.

It would be superfluous either to enlarge on the importance of most of the articles which we have just specified, or to express a moment's hesitation with regard to the usefulness of a Society which continues to afford such unequivocal testimonies of talents, activity, and perseverance.

ART. II. *M. Von Langsdorff's Voyages and Travels in Various Parts of the World, during the Years 1803, 1804, 1805, 1806, and 1807.* Part II.

[Article concluded from the Review for March last.]

WHEN the Russian ship *Nadeshda* arrived at Kamtschatka, after the unpropitious issue of the embassy to Japan, M. Von Resanoff, the ex-ambassador, went on shore with the intention

intention of returning over-land to Saint Petersburg : but he changed his plan on receiving authority to visit the Russian settlements on the Aleutian islands and the north-west coast of America, in quality of inspector and superintendant to the Russian American Trading Company. He invited M. Von Langsdorff to attend him on this circuit as physician, which invitation the author accepted ; and the volume now before us contains his account of this American voyage, in which is seen the conduct of the Russians in their eastern invasions, with the state of their settlements at that time.

M. Von Resanoff, who is styled Plenipotentiary of the Russian American Company, embarked with his physician on board a galliot, and sailed from Kamtschatka in June 1805. The first place at which they stopped was one of the Aleutian or Fox Islands, named St. Paul, which contained a party of Russian hunters and scarcely any other inhabitants ; and the shores here were thronged with seals, chiefly of a kind distinguished by the name *Phoca Ursina*. M. Von L. has given a description of their family-economy, which has something of a fanciful appearance. He says,

‘ These animals live in polygamy. The males sometimes contend with each other strenuously for possession of the females ; the strongest among the males watch carefully over the females and the young. When any danger menaces, they seem to give, as it were, the word of command to the flock under their care to secure themselves, and remain as faithful guardians to meet and defy the enemy. If the males sometimes appear enraged, the females seem to endeavour to sooth and soften them, and if the females neglect or disobey the commands of their lords, the latter punish their disobedience by biting them.’

One of the first regulations which M. Von Resanoff found it necessary to make was to reduce the number of hunters, and to restrain within bounds the number of animals taken in the year, which was so great as to endanger the extermination of the breeds. Fifteen hunters at the island Saint Paul had killed, within the year, 30,000 sea-bears ; and the precautions adopted by the hunters tended to the total destruction of the animals.

‘ The usual manner of taking the sea-bears is to get between them and the shore, and drive them by troops one or two versts into the interior of the island, where they are killed by the stroke of a club. This is done to avoid frightening those that remain about the shore.

‘ The valuable sea-otters, *lutra marina*, nearly three thousand of which were taken in the first two years after the discovery of the island, each skin being worth from a hundred to a hundred and fifty roubles,

roubles, are now almost extirpated; single ones only are casually taken, and that very rarely.'

In the Russian settlements farther eastward, the number of sea-otter-skins, collected during five years preceding the year 1802, was not less than 18,000.

'The constant decrease in the number of sea-otters taken in some years upon the coast of Kamtschatka, and the great advantages derived from the trade in these valuable skins, induced the Russians to extend their possessions eastward from the continent of Asia; first, to the islands between that coast and America; and finally, to the north-west coast of America itself. The same thing occurred in all other parts as had happened on the peninsula of Kamtschatka, where originally the sea-otters were taken in very great abundance: they were hunted with such extreme eagerness, and killed in such numbers, that their total extirpation was to be apprehended in a very short time. Thus the hunters continued following them first from one of the Aleutian islands to another afterwards to Cook's River, and Prince William's Sound; then to many other bays and creeks along the coast of America, killing with so little mercy and discretion, that the race are exceedingly diminished. At present, few are left in existence, or else they have migrated into the more southern parts, and the hunting parties in the northern possessions scarcely answer the expense and trouble incurred in them.

'As however the Russians are naturally unwilling to forego entirely such a source of wealth, and the credit moreover of the Imperial Chartered Trading Company ought to be supported, it has always been deemed right to continue the pursuit of the trade, and to proceed constantly farther and farther to the south-east, in hope of still finding new supplies. Norfolk Sound appearing to present a favourable spot for a fresh establishment, as it was then inhabited by considerable numbers of the sea-otters, the Director Von Baranoff thought it expedient some years ago to take possession of it. The hardy adventurer drove the natives, who are called by the Russians Kaluschians, but by themselves Schitchachans, that is, inhabitants of Schitcha or Sitcha, from the coast, and laid the foundation of a new settlement, to which the name of Sitcha was given.

'M. Von Baranoff, having built a fortress with some dwelling-houses and warehouses, and having, as he hoped, conciliated the Kaluschians, by making them many presents, returned to Kodiak, trusting this new possession to about thirty Promüschleniks, with a superintendant, and some Aleutians. Some years after, at a moment when these people were all dispersed, following their different occupations, such as fishing, cutting down timber, and various other things, the Kaluschians fell upon them, and almost all were killed: a very few of the Aleutians alone saved themselves by taking to the bandarkas. It was by these people, who kept along the coast when they arrived at Kodiak, that the news of the catastrophe was communicated to the factory there.

‘ The settlement was however of so much importance, from the number of sea-otters that had been taken in the Sound, that M. Von Baranoff determined on endeavouring without delay to regain the possession of it, and in the end he succeeded.’

The second dispossessing of the Kaluschians, or Sitchans, was effected in 1804; and Captain Lisiansky in the *Neva* assisted in it, which is related in his voyage. The Sitchans, to the number of 300 fighting men, took post in a fortress which they had built with strong palisades, purposely intended for defence against the Russians. In August 1804, this fortress was invested:

‘ The siege lasted four days, and the contest was carried on with great warmth on both sides. At the expiration of this time, as a breach was made in the fortress, the Kaluschians capitulated, and after giving up nine youths, sons of the most distinguished persons among them, as hostages, fled by night over-land, though, according to the treaty, they were to have had a free passage by water in the day. Three sailors of the *Neva*, three *Promüschleniks*, and several Aleutians, were killed on the side of the besiegers, and a considerable number were wounded: the commander himself had the right hand wrist grazed with a shot. The loss of the Kaluschians was never certainly known, but according to the report of the hostages, and of some straggling fugitives who were taken, it must have been very considerable.’

The establishment formed by the Russians on the land wrested from the Sitchans was named New Archangel.

In the author's description of the whale-fishery of the Aleutians, we see the measure of taxation imposed by the Russian Company on the subdued natives who were subjected to their rule. ‘ Formerly, according to the laws of the country, when a whale was taken, the chief of the village, the person by whom the whale was killed, and every individual of the society, had his regular portion assigned him; but at present, the Russian American Company claim a half, and leave the Aleutians to settle the division of the rest as well as they can.’

From the Aleutian isles, M. Von Resanoff continued his voyage eastward. At the island Kodiak is a principal Russian settlement.

‘ Here,’ says the author, ‘ we descended into the boat, and as we approached a fortress by which the factory is defended, the plenipotentiary of the Russo-American Company was saluted with a repeated discharge of artillery, and welcomed with three cheers from between twenty and thirty youths, uniformly dressed, who had ranged themselves along the palisade. At the landing-place the chamberlain was received by three Russian ecclesiastics, accompanied by the same youths, and conducted by them, the bells ringing all the way, to the church: here a public thanksgiving was offered

offered up by the whole party for the happy arrival of so distinguished a personage.'

Of the rapacious and imperious disposition of the Russian American Company, we may judge from their claim to half the fish caught by the natives, and from the reception of the Company's agent with as much state and observance as might be judged due to a sovereign prince: but M. Von Langsdorff's account affords more weighty and direct evidence. The island Kodiak was known to the Russians in the year 1750; and between that time and the year 1770, merchant-vessels from Ochotsk visited it for the sake of collecting furs, 'till at length, Gregory Schelikoff, a merchant of Irkutsk, thought of establishing a Russian factory here.

'By degrees he reduced under his power this and the neighbouring islands, the population of which he estimated at fifty thousand persons; and embarking a very considerable property in the undertaking, laid the foundation of the present imperial Russia-American trading Company. If it be allowed that Schelikoff had from ostentation doubled the number of the inhabitants, the population still, at that time, must have amounted to between twenty and twenty-five thousand souls. So large a population, the quantity of valuable furs to be procured, the situation and nature of the country, a not very inhospitable climate, and several good harbours, naturally occasioned this island to be preferred before any of the others, as the seat of the principal establishment. The fire-arms of the new guests were too powerful to be resisted, the almost defenceless natives were soon subdued, and deprived of their property and possessions; and ever since, their numbers have from year to year constantly decreased.

'According to the Director Delaroff, in 1790 the number of inhabitants in the islands of Kodiak, Appoknak, Sachlidock, Schujek, Tuckidok, and Sichtunok, amounted to three thousand souls. According to the present superintendent, Von Baranoff, and M. Bander, the overseer at Kodiak, there are at present on the latter island only four hundred and fifty men capable of labour.—

'What is become of the rest of the fifty thousand found here by Schelikoff, in 1784; or of the twenty-five thousand, if we suppose him to have doubled them? Entirely different modes of life, foreign customs and manners, the spreading of unusual, and in some cases of wholly unknown diseases, oppression, and ill usage, in various ways, particularly compulsory and fatiguing hunting-parties, cares and sorrows, insurrections, and many other circumstances of a similar kind, have, like a pestilence, depopulated the countries to an almost incredible degree. As the same ruinous influence still subsists, the small remains of these people seem to be threatened with total extirpation.'

When a disputed claim to a possession is decided by arms, success may be termed conquest: but here was no claim or pretence

tence of claim ; nor any cause of quarrel except that of one party coveting the possessions and rights of another.

‘ I have seen Russian Promyschleniks, or fur-hunters, dispose of the lives of the natives according to their own arbitrary will. The injustice and arbitrary power exercised by the under-directors and stewards of the Company over the natives is carried so far, that the latter have lost all kinds of property, and scarcely now possess even a garment that they can call their own. What Sauer relates in his travels, that the Company have got possession of almost all the baidars, or leather boats, belonging to the Aleutians, is a principal cause of the oppression under which they labour ; for when people, who depend almost entirely upon the water both for their food and clothing, are deprived of their boats, they have no resource left for the support of life. The Aleutians are at present so completely the slaves of the Company, that they hold of them their baidars, their clothing, and even the bone with which their javelins are pointed, and the whole produce of their hunting parties is entirely at their disposal. The stewards and overseers order as many people of either sex as they have occasion for, to go out hunting, or compel them to do other kind of work as they please, to prepare skins, to make clothes, to fabricate baidarkas, to clean and dry fish ; thus all freedom of action is destroyed among them.’

That country is not to be called civilized, of which the laws do not restrain its subjects from the commission of such acts of tyranny.

It is evident that the fur trade in the seas between Asia and North America will continue to decrease, until terminated by the destruction of the breed of the animals, or till they become as scarce as in the European seas, where a seal is so great a rarity as to be called a mermaid. Till of late years, the natives of America wanted skins merely for their own personal use and convenience : but, since they have found a market for the skins yielding a valuable return, they have been as eager to obtain them as Europeans or the subjects of the United States. By this traffic with their furs, the native Americans have procured fire-arms and gun-powder ; the use of which they understand, which has among some of the tribes almost supplanted the bow, and which will probably enable them to stop the progress of European usurpation. ‘ Even the women among the Kaluschians are accustomed to the use of fire-arms, and often go out on the hunting-parties.’

As the Russians have spread eastward, and the Spaniards from California have spread northward, they have been brought nearly into contact ; and the ships of the United States, and others, which trade to the American coast for furs, have of late been obliged to complete their cargoes by purchasing from the Russians at advanced prices.

A want of flour and other provisions at some of the eastern Russian settlements, and perhaps a curiosity to acquire knowledge of those of the Spaniards, induced M. Von Resanoff to go in a ship to the Spanish Presidency of San Francisco. Here he was allowed to purchase the provisions wanted: but the Spaniards received very coldly the propositions which he made for the establishment of an open intercourse between the Russian and Spanish-American settlements.—The author here intersperses some medical observations, from which we quote two or three passages:

‘ Sufficient attention is not paid to taking care of the health either of the colonists or the Indians in New California: the military alone have a physician and a surgeon, who live at Monterey: neither the missionaries, nor their adopted children, the Indians, have any medical assistance. The climate is better and more healthy than in the peninsula of Old California; yet the Indians of the mission are often attacked with feverish complaints, and are of such weak constitutions, that numbers die of them. It is very possible, that in their former mode of life they were rarely ill, but the great change of their habits, the different kind of nourishment they now take, their being constrained to labour much more constantly than before, with other circumstances, may have operated powerfully upon their constitutions. The ecclesiastics complain that upon the least illness the Indians become wholly cast down and dejected, and giving themselves up to this depression of spirits, will not observe the diet or any thing else recommended for their recovery. The missionaries are entirely unprovided with medicines, except some trifling emetics and cathartics, which they keep solely for their own use.

‘ The Governor of Monterey, Don Arrelaga, gave me the important information that vaccination had been introduced into Mexico from Europe, and that a surgeon there had vaccinated a great many people. He assured me that for some time the cow-pox had been observed very much among the cattle in the provinces to the south of Monterey, and that people had begun to inoculate from it with very great success. But since, for more than twenty years, the small-pox had not been seen here, and people had consequently forgotten the dreadful devastations it had made, the precaution of vaccination was considered as superfluous, and many people rejected it on that account.’—

‘ Father Louis at St. Joseph complained to me of another disease which prevails in North and South America equally among the Spaniards and the Indians; as, however, it never fell under my own observation, I cannot give a very clear idea of it. It is a palpitation at the heart, and called by the Spaniards the *latido*. It comes on first with a pulsation in the lower belly, which constantly increases: adults alone are subject to it; among children it has never been known. The principal symptoms attendant on this pulsation are pains in the belly and the neck, which occasion a feeling as if a string were drawn tight over them. A disinclination to eat comes on, and at length a total loss of appetite; sometimes attended with great sickness, and a hardness

hardness in the belly, as if there was a large knot ; cramps are also frequent, and even in men every appearance of hysterical affections. In this situation the sufferer drags on a miserable existence, constantly wasting away, and at length dies, though the death does not seem very much accelerated by the disease, since old people are often to be seen who have been for many years afflicted with the *latido*. Tenia, aneurisms, or other known causes to which physicians have attributed this disease, do not appear in any way to account for it satisfactorily.'

After his inspection of the Company's establishments, M. Von Resanoff returned to Ochotsk : but, before his departure for Saint Petersburg, he gave directions for putting in execution a project which, little to his credit, it seems he had much at heart.

' Having ever since his unsuccessful mission to Japan, borne the nation no little grudge, he thought of revenging the affront by sending a secret expedition against the Japanese settlements in the southernmost of the Kurile islands, if any such were really to be found ; his plea for so doing was, that these islands, as we are informed by Pallas in his Northern Collections, had all been previously taken possession of by the Russians. In consequence of this idea, Lieutenant Davidoff was ordered to steer directly for the Kurile islands, and parted company with the Juno in the neighbourhood of Oonalashka. He directed his course to the island of Urup, on which Schelikoff had twenty years before established a Russian settlement, though after his death it was abandoned. On account of contrary winds and dreadful storms, he thought it not prudent for this year to attempt landing and examining the islands, and he therefore altered his course, and came to the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, there to pass the winter.'

Lieutenant Schwostoff was next sent, and, in October 1806, sailed to an island

' Lying to the south, on which he found a Japanese settlement with considerable magazines. Of this he took possession without any attempt at resistance being made, asserting the prior right of the Russians to the island. He brought away with him nearly a thousand pood of rice, a quantity of tobacco and fishing nets, a great number of lackered cups and vessels, tobacco pipes, a tolerable store of salt, and an immense quantity of dried fish, besides silks, cottons, paper, Indian-ink, pictures, and other objects. A considerable portion of all these articles which he could not bring away with him, he made over as a prize to the native Ainus. Four Japanese, to whom the care of the magazines was confided, were brought as prisoners to Kamtschatka.

' In this manner did the Japanese first learn, through the mortified *amour-propre* of the ex-ambassador, to understand, in some degree, the extent of the Russian power. The undertaking had, at least, some colour of justice, and all possibility of M. Von Resanoff's ever being called to account for the measures he had pursued, was precluded by his death, which happened the following year at Kranojarsk.

on his return to St. Petersburg: it was occasioned by his horse falling with him on the road from Ochotsk.'

We shall close our account of M. Von Langsdorff's Travels, or rather of the observations made by him during his travels, by remarking that his volume communicates much new information on subjects by no means uninteresting to this country; particularly respecting the fur-trade, and the state of the north-west coast of America. The language is easy, and the author's sentiments are in general of a liberal cast.

ART. III. *Letters from Albion to a Friend on the Continent*, written in the Years 1810, 1811, 1812, and 1813. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Gale and Co. 1814.

THE time was, says Cicero, when a stranger and an enemy were synonymous terms: "*peregrinus antea dictus hostis.*" During the barbarous ages of modern Europe, also, similar feelings prevailed; the outlandish man was ridiculed, hooted, expelled; and the property of a dying foreigner was inhospitably confiscated for the benefit of the local sovereign. With the progress of refinement, such sentiments are reversed. We now welcome and assist the traveller or settler from abroad; the *droit d'aubaine* is obliterated from every statute-book; naturalization is facilitated; and to attract the curiosity or tempt the residence of the stranger is numbered among the triumphs of civilization, and the merits of polity.

It is but of late that England and its metropolis have been allowed by foreigners essentially to deserve a minute inspection. Nobler monuments of architecture certainly adorn Italy and France; finer collections of art have been accumulated at Paris and at Rome; Germany can rival our libraries, and our museums of natural history; while nature has placed in Lombardy lakes and mountains more picturesque than our own, and has gilded with a more cheerful sunshine the vine-clad banks of the Loire. In spite, however, of all our deficiencies, natural and artificial, the purposes of nature and of art are here admirably attained. No where have so many ungrateful soils been taught by the beneficence of a lavish agriculture at length to yield a return; — no where are so many cataracts employed to turn the mills of manufacture, and to make machinery toil for man; — no where are so many salubrious sources guided through all the dwellings of the people to provoke every variety of neatness. Moreover, a much larger proportion of the citizens are well lodged here than elsewhere; and the houses of the numerous classes are relatively good. The prevalence of comfort, and even of luxury, is considerable; utensils, furniture,
and

and engravings, executed with a great degree of skill and elegance, are very generally displayed. Instruction is not carried perhaps to the intensity of foreign erudition : but it is diffused in desirable proportions throughout the croud ; and no where have so many establishments of beneficence been rendered conducive to practical utility. In short, if the highest excellence in art may be found in greater perfection elsewhere, here at least we have a more generous and popular distribution of all its productions and accommodations.

Various foreigners have lately visited, or professed to visit, the seat of our dominion, since they have begun to perceive that some important arts of life are to be learned only in Great Britain; and that many of our public practices, institutions, and manufactories are worth describing and imitating. We have now before us an agreeable writer and a warm panegyrist, in the person of a Prussian nobleman; who is not merely a friend but a flatterer of this country ; and who, in rapidly sketching his views of Great Britain, dexterously selects for notice only the more beautiful features of the various landscape, and, with a fascinating picturesque art, conceals all the displeasing objects in cloud and gloom. We seem to be reading the travels of Anacharsis. Indeed, the whole work has acquired a romantic air, in consequence of the author's describing the characters in his boarding-house, and beginning a sort of love-adventure with the beautiful Julia, to whom he presents verses scarcely unworthy of our native poets.

The first letter is dated from Harwich. It describes Heligoland, the passage over, the view of the coast, and the first impression made by the country, its inhabitants, and usages. The breakfast offered to the author, on his landing, forms a subject of astonishment :

‘ The tea-pot was a kind of black earthenware, with basso-relievos; the cream-pot silver ; the cup and saucer, Staffordshire ware, but as capacious as a small bason ; the caddy, neat lacker-work, with excellent green and black tea ; a small plate with toast tops and bottoms upon a china bason, and another with buttered slices of bread, as thin as a poppy-leaf ; a small knife and fork, and a bason with the finest loaf-sugar. All this was brought upon an elegant waiter, and placed near the fire-side, on a round mahogany table, spread with a cotton cloth. The tea I made myself, as it is customary here, and found it quite to my taste.

‘ The fire in the chimney being low, another waiter brought a scuttle of coals, and poured its contents into the grate. Suddenly a lurid smoke burst on high, and made me start from my seat, imagining that mephitic air would suffocate me ; but nothing came into the room, so strong was the current in the funnel ; and when the smoke had subsided, I felt very comfortable. Such a fire-side is

besides elegant : instead of a low hearth upon which we place our wood, there is here a grate of embossed iron, which, like a small stove, fills up the chimney ; but you see the fire open through the bars, which has an uncommonly cheerful appearance. Round it runs an elegant fender of polished steel, with shovel, poker, and tongs, to stir the fire, or take up the coals.

‘ The drawing-room where I breakfasted was spread with a pretty carpet ; and the windows, consisting of sashes moving up and down, were hung with fine chintz ; for the delicate white curtains tam-boured or festooned with garlands, which so much adorn our apartments, are not relished here, on account of their easily being affected by the smoke.’

Great reluctance is felt at incurring the degradation of travelling by a stage-coach : but the admiration of the public carriage is as great, which succeeds to the experiment.

The second letter is written from London. At the White-horse Cellar in Piccadilly, the author first takes up his abode : but, not liking the bustle there, he delivers his letters of recommendation, and is placed as boarder in a private family. The date of arrival is not specified : but, as ripe plumbs are sold at the coach-door, it must have been in the autumn. This is a bad season for entering England ; with October, terminates our pleasant weather ; and the smoaky fogs of December, the snow and ice of January, the dirt and thaw of February, and the dusty east-winds of March, render the winter-quarter irksome to those who are unwilling to keep at home. The foreigner should cross the sea in April, give May to London, and at Midsummer begin his provincial tour.

Letter iii. continues, or rather begins, to describe London. The author, we are told, was his own translator ; and we accordingly find many inaccuracies of expression. For instance, he calls the edge of the foot-pavement the *kerb-stone* instead of *curb-stone* ; an Englishman would have known the meaning of the word, and not have spelt by the ear. — St. Paul’s is viewed with disappointment. — The fourth letter gives an interesting and dramatic account of Lancaster’s school ; and the houses of parliament and the theatres pass in review. — The fifth offers a very lively description of the Court of King’s Bench, which the author divertingly mistakes for a consistory ; and he infers from their wigs and bands that the barristers are Christian clergy. — The sixth begins to pourtray the environs of London, of which Richmond is deemed the most beautiful ; and the seventh sketches Chelsea, Camberwell, and Greenwich. — The eighth is a love-letter : Julia is come home again. So is the ninth, though it includes an account of the opera. We transcribe some elegant verses addressed to Julia, and intitled

‘ TO-MORROW.

‘ TO-MORROW.

‘ Oh, Julia ! smile no more on me,
Or smile with pity, not with glee.
Dim shines the lustre of my star ;
No friend cheers me ; my land is far ;
And love, to sadden all my way,
Has led my feeling heart astray :
Then smile, O smile no more on me,
Or smile with pity, not with glee.
To-morrow is the parting hour,
To-morrow Julia leaves this bower ;
To-morrow, when through gloom and night
Despondent hope flees from my sight,
And seeks that place to where I steer,
As silent as a tomb and drear.
To-morrow smile no more with glee ;
But shed a tear, and pity me.’

A more direct imitation of Mr. Scott’s “Cypress Wreath” occurs at the end of the work :

‘ THE BIRTH-DAY WREATH.

‘ Oh, lady ! worth a better meed,
Do not disdain my humble reed :
Amidst thy fragrance-shedding bowers
I gather’d fond the sweetest flowers ;
And, rapt with sentiment and glee,
I twin’d this humble wreath for thee.
‘ Thine is what worth and virtue’s glow
On heavenly goodness can bestow ;
All bliss that in a tender wife
Can cheer the fondest mother’s life ;
More precious gifts I can’t bring thee —
Then take this humble wreath from me.
‘ And when thro’ Windermere’s sweet grove,
I solitary musing rove,
And nimble-wing’d the passing air
Tells whisp’ring thee my fondest prayer,
Then know that, shedding tears of glee,
I twine my humble wreath for thee.’

No wonder that, after the loss of Julia, we hear in the tenth letter of the damp air, the eternal bustle, the countless embarrassments of London by day, and the watchmen ‘ paid to cry one out of sleep’ at night. The author now determines to leave town; the eleventh and twelfth letters describe Liverpool; the thirteenth, Chester; and the fourteenth, Carlisle,

Volume II. opens with a description of Glasgow; and Edinburgh succeeds. In the twentieth letter, the author reaches Newcastle upon Tyne; revisits Liverpool; passes through Birmingham with negligent haste, and sojourns at Bath.

Bath. A singular and brief character of some of our principal writers is given in a letter from Liverpool :

‘ I have formed a collection of English books, which are my friends when I am at home.

‘ Thomson has the precedence of all ; he speaks the language of nature, and speaks to the heart. The dirty Swift is the last ; I cannot forgive him his Lady’s Bed-chamber.

‘ Pope is not my man ; *Odi imitatorum* — : and then his rancour against the better half of mankind, because a Mary Wortley Montague was disgusted with the addresses of a pedant.

‘ Gray hurries me along ; his Elegy in a Church-yard is annihilating. Ossian takes my soul. Milton in his *Penseroso* touches, and in his *Comus* amuses me ; but his devils shock my feelings, whilst many a time I am much inclined to side with poor Beelzebub.

‘ What shall I say of Shakespeare ? Geniuses of transcendent powers cannot be judged by the rules of common phænomena. And the enemy of the Scots, the grand reformer of the English language, Johnson, what do you think of him ? With his world of Latin he was actually a starched pedant. There is a drawing made by a lady, representing him as swimming from the Isle of Man to the mainland by laying hold of a cow’s tail ; — that was a criticism *in nuce*.

The 25th letter depicts Oxford ; and the 26th is again from London. A second excursion includes the Lakes, and York. At the latter place, the races are well described :

‘ Next day the stir at the inn was still greater than the evening before. No other business was spoken of but the races, and most of the persons were *gentlemen of the turf*, for that is the technical expression for people making a profession of breeding horses to run for prizes.

‘ Smolensko, the celebrated race-horse of Sir C. Bunbury, for which he was offered four thousand guineas, was expected from Newmarket, but did not arrive.

‘ By degrees the whole town began to move, and I followed the example. The suburb was so crowded as scarcely to admit a passage. I made therefore the best of my way to get a good place, and in this I was fortunate enough. Stands were erected for gentlemen and ladies, and there I gently pushed my way through.

‘ Now I stood thirty feet above the level of the turf, just in view of the starting-post, and overlooked the plain. Heavens ! what a multitude ! ten thousand was not their name. People of all ages and descriptions, coaches, curricles, gigs, men on horseback and on foot, covered the race-ground as far as the eye could reach, and beauties lined the stands, sparkling in their best attire to render more brilliant the festival day.

‘ I was pressed on all sides ; a belle had passed her fine hand round my neck, and another thrust her velvet cheek past mine, unmindful of what they did — for the great business was to see what was passing below.

‘ Now the stewards mount into their lodge, the race-horses are brought forward, trapped with pretty body-clothes from head to tail. The jockeys walk them to and fro, the multitude stand a-gape.

‘ Now the coursers are uncovered, and the gentlemen mount ; great is the prize ; one thousand six hundred pounds the sweepstake.

‘ Two noble steeds stand foremost ; one black, mounted by a rider in white and scarlet colours ; the other bay, backed by a youth in blue satin and primrose. The black is the favourite ; high mettle shines from his eyes : but the bay champs the bit, and impatiently shifts his ground ; his eyes sparkle fire, he snorts, the rider can scarcely check his ardour.

‘ “ Twenty to ten ! ” exclaims a gentleman close by me, “ the black horse wins the sweepstake.” “ I hold,” replied I rashly, “ the bay carries the prize.”

‘ He pulls out his bank-note, I mine ; the trumpet sounds, the coursers start.

‘ O heavens ! how they sweep ! the grass scarcely bends under their nimble feet ! now they turn, double the circling lists, and scud along the plain ; they outstrip the swiftest wing.

‘ But what do I behold ! the bay is behind ! the black pushes on with unconquerable speed ; my rival triumphs, my courage flags. The goal is in sight, the scarlet rider a-head ; my bet is lost !

‘ No, no ! the bay comes up : they are abreast only ten yards from the spot ; my hero claps his spurs, the ambitious steed feels the importance of the moment, collects his forces, leaps, and outstrips the favourite by four yards just at the decisive goal ! . . . I raise a cry, — shouts rend the firmament ; — he has carried the prize, — the wager is mine !’

The lakes are not very successfully painted : but, on the whole, these letters are lively, picturesque, and well written : for, though the earlier abound with Germanisms, the author improves by habit, and progressively acquires a greater command of the English language. His opinions display much judicious observation ; he draws attention to the diffusion of comfort, which is our characteristic advantage ; and he does not forget that shows are the pastime, not the purpose, of life, and that it is more extensively conducive to human happiness to excel in useful than in ornamental pursuits.

ART. IV. *The Flowers of Wit*, or a choice Collection of Bon Mots, both antient and modern ; with Biographical and Critical Remarks. By the Rev. Henry Kett, Author of the *Elements of General Knowledge* ; *Emily*, a Moral Tale, &c. &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1814.

GOOD jest-books are good things. They amuse ; and they contribute not only to evolve the wit, a faculty important to the pleasures of social intercourse, but to sharpen that relish for wit in others, which changes the passive reader or hearer into a delighted admirer. Wit is not so easily defined as felt.

felt. Our old writers used the word for intellect in general ; as when Dryden talks of " Nature's mother-wit ?" but in modern times the term has been confined rather to that faculty which is in quest of concealed resemblances ; and which may be opposed to the penetration, a faculty always in quest of concealed differences. Shakspeare seems to assign a wit, a peculiar language, or an art of translating thought into word, to each of the five senses. The passage to which we allude is this : " Alas ! in his last conflict four of his five wits went halting off, and now is the whole man governed by one."

A recent synonymist compares the wit to the smell, which is a sagacity somewhat imperceptibly exerted in detecting delicate and hidden phænomena, whose inferences are mostly stated in hints, or in pantomime, but which is not the less trustworthy from the difficulty, or inexpediency, of translating its perceptions into language, and bringing them to definition. According to Mr. Kett,

' Wit may be considered as much the same talent as genius. Or it may be said to be that species of genius, which displays itself not in long and deliberate compositions, such as epic poetry and tragedy, but in the short and rapid sallies of conversation. Men of wit make quick associations of the most distant ideas, and are happy in the communication of them in clear, energetic, and pointed language. They surprize by the novelty of their thoughts, and please by the various turns they give to them. When they make their humblest efforts, they play upon the different meanings of words : when they take a flight more worthy of their talents, they elicit a noble sentiment or a striking image, from a common observation, occurrence, or maxim : thus they discover and communicate unexpected, yet just, analogies of things ; and they show the most extensive exercise of their powers, by a ready command over the most brilliant figures of rhetoric :—they illustrate their ideas by a simile, adorn them with the colours of a metaphor, or elevate them by an hyperbole.'

This description of wit confounds it with genius : or at least assigns no other difference than in the duration of the effort. Surely we do not give the name of wit to a noble sentiment, or to a striking image which elevates into importance a common observation. All wit depreciates the object of its point. The parallelism which embellishes is termed eloquent ; and that which caricatures is termed witty. To preserve but to degrade the likeness of ideas is to express them wittily ; and, on perceiving the incongruity of the pretended resemblance, the mind feels that tendency to smile, or to exult, which ensues from wit. Butler thus wittily describes the dawn :

" When, like a lobster boil'd, the morn
From black to red began to turn."

If he had been writing on cookery, and had compared the discolouration of lobsters with Aurora's tinge of the dark-blue clouds, this also would have been somewhat witty: but it is the presence of the *low* image beside the high one which generates the disposition to laughter. Many anecdotes in the volumes before us are striking, sublime, beautiful, or eloquent, without being witty: and we frequently discover no collocation of discrepancies, no junction of things that are incoherent, no comparison of those which are unequal, no disappointed vigour, no bow bent with a power which snaps its string. Wit has been divided by critics into the heroi-comic and the burlesque. The first produces an incongruous contrast by applying sublime parallelisms to petty imagery; and the second produces a like effect by applying low parallelisms to noble imagery. "The Rape of the Lock" abounds with heroi-comic wit; and the *Æneid* travestied or parodied by Cotton contains burlesque wit. In punning, the incongruous union of contrasted ideas is accomplished by opposing thoughts excited by the sound of a word to thoughts excited by its signification.

We copy half a dozen articles, to give an idea of Mr. Kett's taste in wit.

‘ JOHN HORNE TOOKE.

‘ No man ever displayed more subtlety or coolness of judgement in the discussion of arguments that arose in the course of conversation. But when he obtained a seat in the House of Commons, he seemed out of his element, and spoke more like a casuistical attorney than an eloquent senator. What Tacitus said of Galba, may be applied to him as a member of parliament; he was, "*Major imperio, nisi imperasset.*"' —

‘ THOMAS WARTON.

‘ In a company where Tom Warton was present, a person was talking of the active disposition of the king, and that he possessed a number of time-pieces, particularly a watch so light and small that he could wear it as a ring: "The king wears this," said Warton, "to show that time does not hang heavy upon his hands." —

‘ FREDERICK LORD NORTH.

‘ At the close of life he was afflicted with the total loss of sight. At Bath he met Colonel Barrè, who had been his warm opponent in the House of Commons, and was also blind. On being introduced to each other, Lord North said, "Colonel, you and I have often been at variance; but I believe there are no people in the world, who, after all, would be more glad to see each other." —

‘ WILLIAM PITT.

‘ This great statesman was known, when retired from public business into the circle of his friends, to indulge in light and playful conver-

conversation. He even condescended to punning. "When enjoying himself with a convivial party at Walmer Castle, the expected invasion of the French from the opposite shores was talked of, and one of his friends asked him, "What dependence can you place upon your Cinque-Port volunteers? for you know some of them are millers, and others are custom-house officers." "O," said Pitt, "these are the very men in whose military talents I can confide: every miller is a Marshal Saxe, and every custom-house officer is a Caesar." —

' THE OXFORD CHURCHWARDEN.

' Mr. Malbon the apothecary was called to attend an Oxford churchwarden, whose head was full of parish business, and was not very conversant with expressions out of the way of the vulgar tongue. "I have a great soreness in my breast," said the churchwarden. "That arises," said the apothecary, "from a febrile affection in the thorax; — but pray let me ask you, Do you expectorate?" "Expect a rate," said the churchwarden; "no, Sir, thank God, that parish business is settled, I made a rate last week." —

' CLASSICAL APPLICATIONS.

' Two Oxford scholars being at a loss for amusement, one said to the other, "Suppose we cap verses." "No," said his companion, "for I should think that as dry work as chopping logic. Suppose we repeat, in the alternate style of Virgil's shepherds, all the ingenious applications we can recollect of passages in the Classics that have been made to modern subjects." "Agreed," said the other, "provided we do not alter the original text, nor pilfer from Jortin or Beresford.

' A. It was aptly said of a *barber* shaving, as Virgil said of a flying dove, *Radit iter liquidum*.

' B. What think you of the *skaiter*, who, like Fame,

' " *Mobilitate viget, viresque acquirit eundo.*"

' A. *Sadler* going up with his *balloon* may be supposed to exclaim,

' " *Tentanda via est, quâ me quoque possim
Tollere humo, victorque virum volitare per ora.*"

' B. George Huddesford prefixed this motto to his verses on a favourite *cat*:

' " *Mi-cat inter omnes.*"

' A. If it be fair play to assail me with a pun, take another in return. A friend of ours not long ago gave wine to a party. They expressed their dislike of his Port; so he told them, if they would have patience, he would go to his cellar and fetch them some wine they would like better. After they had *waited some time*, he returned with some *claret*, which they pronounced to be excellent. A wag who was present said, "Our host reminds me of old Fabius Maximus, who

' " *Cunctando restituit rem;
Ergo magisque magisque viri nunc gloria claret.*"

' B. Tom

‘ B. Tom Warton prefixed this motto to his ‘ *Companion to the Guide and Guide to the Companion* :’

‘ “ *Tu mihi dum comiti, tu comes ipsa duci.*”

This line seemed so exactly to correspond with the title, that wagers were laid Tom Warton was the author of it. The sceptics lost their bets, for it occurs in Ovid’s Epistle of Hypermnestra to Lynceus.

‘ A. If you quote mottos, I will pay you in your own coin.

‘ Malone published a pamphlet to prove that the manuscripts produced by Ireland and attributed to Shakespeare were gross forgeries. Malone inserted in his title-page a part of the description which Virgil gave of the impious Salmoneus, and applied it to Ireland with singular felicity :

‘ “ *Demens, quí nimbos et non imitabile fulmen,
Ære et cornipedum sonitu simulârat equorum !*”

‘ B. Dr. Joseph Warton made a good hit, when he heard that John the Painter was going to be executed on board the *Arethusa* frigate. “ John,” said the doctor, “ may adopt the invocation of Virgil :

‘ “ *Extremum hunc, Arethusa, mihi concede laborem.*”

‘ A. Felix Vaughan, an able barrister, was supposed to be implicated with Horne Tooke, Hardy, and others, who were afterwards tried for high treason. This matter was canvassed by the privy-council ; and when it was ascertained that Felix Vaughan had cautiously stopped short of the risks which others had run, Mr. Dundas exclaimed,

‘ “ *Felix, quem faciunt aliena pericula cautum !*”

‘ B. You recollect to whom Tibullus addressed the following beautiful lines. Louis Racine may be said to have consecrated them : he was a pious Catholic, and applied them to his crucifix :

‘ “ *Te spectem, suprema mihi cum venerit hora,
Te teneam moriens deficiente manu.*”

‘ A. I have kept back the application of a passage, as my *corps de reserve*, which I think will put you *hors de combat*. It is unquestionably the happiest allusion I ever met with.

‘ You have doubtless heard of the famous Cardinal Poole, Archbishop of Canterbury. Sandolet, a learned man, advised him to apply himself to the philosophy of the antients, giving it the preference to all other studies. “ At the period,” said the Cardinal, “ when the world was obscured by the darkness of Paganism, the philosophy you recommend did certainly excel all other pursuits ; but since the mists of ignorance have been cleared away by the bright beams of the Gospel, Christian knowledge, derived from the study of the holy Scriptures, has justly gained the preference : in short, the Pagan philosophy you so much admire is *now*, exactly as Tenedos was described by Virgil :

‘ “ *Notissima fama
Insula, dives opum, Priami dum regna manebant ;
Nunc tantum sinus, et statio malefida carinis.*” ’

The reader may detect in the first anecdote of this short extract something of negligence, such as the misquotation of Tacitus ; and something of indulgence, in giving the name of wit to a hacknied and trivial application. Many of the anecdotes, however, are lively ; and some are original, being here put on record for the first time. No peculiar felicity of narration is displayed ; on the contrary, the anecdote concerning Santerre's epitaph, for instance, loses its point by vice of diction. Horace Walpole should be studied for the art of telling little things. — Great care, however, has been taken to purify the selection from every thing obscene or profane ; it is a perfect lady's jester, a female punster's vade-mecum, a virgin's pocket-dictionary of repartee : — it contains the most innocent beauties of ridicule, and might be read aloud in a serious family, or dedicated to a bishop's wife. Equal success has not attended Mr. K.'s design to admit only stimulant and poignant speeches ; since we meet with many insipid anecdotes, and some repetitions.

From the preface, which is full of promise, we looked for a more pedantic book : for the complete archæology of wit ; for a history of the progressive refinement of small talk ; for a catalogue of the happy sayings recorded by the ancients, in the chronological order of their explosion ; for a selection of the beauties of Aristophanes, Plutarch, Athenæus, Aulus Gellius, and the other jest-jobbers of antiquity ; and for a critical estimate, according to their aim, of the several worshippers of Momus. We presumed that this display of classical learning would form but the base to a colonnade of modern erudition ; and that the entire bibliography of jest-books, from that of Taylor the water-poet to that of Joe Miller, would be led through all the extant literary languages of Europe. When the author had rifled the more aromatic blossoms in the principal gardens of transplantation, we expected that the remaining chapters would have been allotted to weeding the several *ana* ; so as to allow the more vaunted wittings of the world severally to appear, each appropriately surrounded by his own good things and lucky hits. If, however, we were not to have in two quarto volumes a complete encyclopædia of wit, let us be grateful for this epitome in duodecimo : which may stock the memory with pleasant anecdotes, and discipline the tongue for ready conversation.

ART. V. *The Lay of the Scottish Fiddle*, a Poem, in Five Cantos ; supposed to be written by W. S. Esquire. First American, from the fourth Edinburgh Edition. Crown 8vo. pp. 240. 7s. 6d. Boards. London, Cawthorn. 1814.

WE were not prepossessed in favour of this dear little volume, either by its title or its implied design of ridiculing our northern minstrel. The title is vulgar ; and the design has of late been so often and so sufficiently well executed, that we are tired of it. Parodies cannot long please ; — the best and most successful at the time are soon neglected ; and this we are inclined to think is quite as it should be. A momentary laugh should not furnish matter for lasting approbation.

Still less do we approve of this trifle when considered as an attack on our naval commanders on the American station. Regarding it, however, as a sort of fly on the ox, who was wholly unconscious of the important little animal's presence, we shall take no notice either of its low and very moderate attempts at humour in the case of Mr. Scott, or of its impotent malignity against the untarnished honour of the British flag. We shall rather set the author an example of charity and forbearance, and respect for any thing like ability, by quoting *nothing* from either of the portions of his work to which we have alluded, and confining our extracts to some detached passages of a descriptive or otherwise innocent nature ; in which we are of opinion that our readers will discover a considerable degree of poetic talent, although by no means sufficient to justify the puffing panegyric of the English editor, (as he is intitled, whether jocosely or not we have no means of ascertaining,) who talks of ranking the present poet much higher than it is possible for him ever to rise. The description of the blind *bard* (for we shall not humour the strange mixture of jest and earnest in the volume) is pleasing enough :

‘ Alike to him was time and tide,
No day and night his hours divide ;
To him alike or gloom or light,
For him ’twas one long pitchy night :
Whether the wandering sun-beam play’d,
Or moon-light o’er the waters stray’d,
Or darkness veil’d the earth and skies,
The same to his dark sightless eyes ;
’Twas night when pleasure was away,
And sunshine when his heart was gay.’

The same subject is happily resumed in a subsequent passage :

‘ I cannot view fair Nature’s face,
Nor catch her well-remember’d grace ;

Nor

Nor taste the balm of beauty's smile,
 That cheer'd my lonely heart erewhile;
 Nor see the woodland warbler stray
 In careless freedom on the spray;
 Yet when I hear the summer breeze
 Play o'er the bosoms of the trees,
 Whose answering whispers seem to tell,
 They love the gentle visit well;
 Or the wild music of the grove,
 Vocal with lengthen'd notes of love;
 Or what is sweeter to my ear,
 The voice of gentle damsel near:
 Remembrance waken'd starts away
 To blithesome scenes of distant day,
 When these dead eyes could freely scan,
 The face of nature and of man;
 Catch, mantling in young beauty's cheeks,
 The blush that untold secret speaks,
 Translate the glances of her eye,
 The only real witchery.'

After a page crowded with barbarous Indian names,—a species of schoolboy-wit of the most inglorious facility, — we have the following specimen of better taste :

' Far distant up a winding bay,
 Annapolis before them lay :
 Its ancient towers so stately rose,
 And wore an air of calm repose ;
 And though the hand of slow decay
 Had stol'n its ancient pomp away,
 And sometimes, in the dead of night,
 The listening ear of wakeful wight,
 Might hear old Time, relentless crone !
 Heave from its base some mould'ring stone,
 That trembled on the ruin'd wall,
 Ready at every touch to fall :
 Yet still a nobler air it wore,
 As if, in distant days of yore,
 Far better times it well had known,
 Though now decay'd and aged grown.'

' Old Time' is a favourite. We have *him* or *her* (for the gender is here doubtful) again, not ill introduced, on another occasion. A town laid in ashes is the subject :

——' the once animated scene
 Is now, as if it ne'er had been !
 Where late the passing trav'ler view'd
 A little nest of houses strew'd,
 Was nothing now but mouldering wall,
 Already nodding to its fall;

As if old Time, in wrathful spite,
Had silent come that fatal night,
And did, to show his wondrous power,
The work of years, in one sad hour,

‘ No more beheld the busy show
Of people passing to and fro,
On business or on pleasure bent,
With smiling look of calm content:
But here and there might now be seen,
The black and ruin’d walls between,
A ragged urchin prowling pass
To scratch among the smoking mass,
And search with keen inquiring eye
Some precious relic to espy.

‘ And many a houseless wretch was seen
Wending their way across the green,
With slow and lingering step, to view
The havoc made by lawless crew.
Alas! where shall the wanderers roam
To find a refuge and a home?’

We do not know whether the author accents the second syllable of ‘wanderers’ as long: but, at pages 106. and 107. we have ‘ossified’ for one quadrisyllable, and ‘vivified’ for another. The passage, however, just cited, with the exception of the ‘ragged urchin *scratching*,’ is worthy of a better place than it has found; and so is the ensuing:

‘ By Pompton stream, that silent flows
Where many a wild flower heedless blows,
Unmark’d by any human eye,
Unpluck’d by any passer by,
There stands a church, whose whiten’d side
Is by the traveller often spied,
Glittering among the branches fair
Of locust trees, that flourish there.
Along the margin of the tide
That to the eye just seems to glide,
And to the list’ning ear ne’er throws
A murmur to disturb repose,
The stately elm majestic towers;
The lord of Pompton’s fairy bowers:
The willow, that its branches waves
O’er neighbourhood of rustic graves,
Oft when the summer south wind blows,
Its thirsty tendrils playful throws
Into the river rambling there,
The cooling influence to share
Of the pure stream, that bears impress’d
Sweet Nature’s image in its breast.’

The note subjoined to these lines is interesting: but, in general, the notes play only a feeble second to the harsh tune of the text. As we promised, however, we shall spare the author that pain in seeing either quoted, when they turn on his two objects of hostility, which his better judgment must, we think, already make him feel.

As the following description is really very promising, we advise the writer to exercise his strength on such subjects more exclusively than he seems inclined to do :

- ‘ ——— on the stately vessels plow’d
Through curling wave, that ruddy glow’d
With sunset’s sweet and mellow beam,
Which shed a mild and gentle gleam
Of golden lustre o’er the tide,
That softly murmur’d far and wide.
- ‘ And now they came in gallant pride
Where Susquehannah’s noble tide,
In silent pomp, is seen to pay
Its tribute to the lordly bay ;
And on its beauteous margin spied
The little town in rural pride,
Reposing in the folded arms
Of peace, nor dreaming of those harms
Which Fortune, in her fitful spite,
Decreed should come that fatal night.
- ‘ The sun low in the west did wane ;
And cross the level of the plain
The shadow of each tree the while
Seem’d lengthen’d into many a mile ;
The purple hue of evening fell
Upon the low sequester’d dell ;
And scarce a lingering sunbeam play’d
Around the distant mountain’s head :
The sweet south wind sunk to a calm ;
The dews of evening fell like balm ;
The night-hawk, soaring in the sky
Told that the twilight shades were nigh ;
The bat began his dusky flight ;
The whipper-will, our bird of night,
Ever unseen yet ever near,
His shrill note warbled in the ear ;
The buzzing beetle forth did hie,
With busy hum and heedless eye ;
The little watchman of the night,
The fire-fly, trimm’d his lamp so bright,
And took his merry airy round
Along the meadow’s fragrant bound,
Where blossom’d clover, bath’d in dew,
In sweet luxuriance blushing grew.

‘ O Nature,

- ‘ O Nature, goddess ever dear,
What a fair scene of peace was here !
What pleasant sports, what calm delights,
What happy days, what blameless nights
Might in such gentle haunts be spent,
In the soft lap of bland content !
But vain it is, that bounteous heav’n
To wretched man this earth has giv’n ;
Vain, that its smiling face displays
Such beauties to its reckless gaze,
While this same rash malignant worm
Raises the whirlwind and the storm,
Pollutes her bosom with hot blood,
Turns to rank poison all her good,
And plays before his Maker’s eyes
The serpent of this paradise.’

With two more citations, we believe, (excepting a few scattered lines,) we shall have extracted *all* the honey from this little hive. The dead drones and wasps about its mouth we shall leave to their natural fate.

The next passage refers to the conflagration of the town before mentioned; and here the imitation is not only powerful, but the original vein is far from scanty :

- ‘ The distant peasant hears the sound,
And starting with elastic bound,
Hies to the mountain’s bright’ning head,
And sees the fiery ruin spread ;
And marks the red and angry glare
Of water, sky, and earth, and air.
Seem’d Susquehannah’s wave on fire,
And red with conflagration dire ;
The spreading bay’s ensanguin’d flood
Seem’d stain’d with tint of human blood :
O’er Cecil county, far and wide,
Each tree, and rock, and stream was spied ;
And distant windows brightly gleam’d,
As if the setting sun had beam’d.
- ‘ The Elkton burgher rais’d his head
To see what made the sky so red ;
From Ararat the falcon sail’d ;
The owl at lonely distance wail’d ;
The gaunt wolf far adown the dale
Loaded with loud lament the gale,
As plaining that the morning’s prime
Had come that day before its time :
The wild deer started in the wood,
And all on tiptoe listening stood
To hear the yell, so stern and drear,
That smote upon his startled ear ;

But when he saw the raging fire
 Spring up the sky, and then retire,
 Now spread o'er ether, quick advance,
 And now o'er heav'n's blue concave dance,
 With furious bound he hied away,
 And hid him from the light of day ;
 Far in the distant forest green,
 Where fire, or man, was never seen.'

Our last proof of this writer's real talent is another allusion to the blindness of his minstrel ; and we earnestly exhort him, at parting, seriously to reflect how he has debased his natural gifts by the spleen and the dullness with which he has enveloped the much better productions that are here displayed.

- ' The morn returns—but well-a-way !
 Comes not for me the welcome day.
 No blush of spring's fair vernal bloom,
 No summer rose in rich perfume,
 No flocks that in the meadows play,
 Nor lowing herds that devious stray,
 Nor sparkling centinel of night,
 Shall ever greet my waken'd sight :
 But dark my ever during way,
 Shut from the golden light of day ;
 I know nor sun, nor star, nor moon,
 Nor midnight from the blaze of noon ;
 The captive in his dungeon dark
 Preserves a hope of brilliant spark,
 Which like some mild benignant star
 Beckons the trembler from afar,
 To happy scenes of dear delight,
 To sunshine, liberty, and light.
 But I no such fair vision see,
 The torch of Hope burns not for me ;
 In a dark world, aye doom'd to roam
 Without a friend, a hope, a home.
- ' Yet why complain ? in yonder skies
 A sure and certain refuge lies.
 There, when my dark, dark course is run,
 I shall behold a glorious sun ;
 A world ethereal, fair and bright,
 And forms of uncreated light ;
 Spirits that glide through earth and sky,
 Unseen by any mortal eye ;
 And never more in darkness roam,
 Without a friend, a hope, a home.'

ART. VI. *The Legend of Iona*, with other Poems. By Walter Paterson. 8vo. pp. 342. 12s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Longman and Co.

IN proportion to the cultivation of the mind, of which the effusions are submitted to criticism, undoubtedly must be the pain inflicted by an unfavourable judgment deservedly passed on them. It is, therefore, with sincere regret that, at times, we feel ourselves forced to censure writings which give sufficient indications of natural ability, or of acquired knowledge, to warrant the belief that more pains and longer practice would have enabled the author to produce a very different work. The task of reproof is not less unpleasing when we perceive that some prevailing delusion, or popular error in taste, has occasioned the failure of a young candidate for literary fame. The public have in that case largely contributed to mislead the writer; and, consequently, they who have been in the habit of applauding similar compositions, however disfigured by faults, would be unjust indeed if they severely censured the victims of their own indulgence. We have often pointed out the inevitable consequences of that laxity with regard to all the established rules of composition, of that violation of the commonest principles of grammar, and of that disregard of the plainest canons of style and versification, which abound in the most fashionable poems of the day. Indeed, it was plain that, from the moment at which this mixture of the phraseology of prose and verse, and this revival of old words in the same paragraph which is also distinguished by the coinage of new expressions, were generally tolerated, the success of a few leading poets of unquestionable ability would encourage a host of imitators to pursue "the bubble reputation" in the same perverted path. The English language, already corrupted and debased from a thousand other causes, will suffer more from this one, perhaps, than from any: since popular poetry, and lines and passages in every body's memory, must affect the whole frame of that language, and give a decided tone both to conversation and to composition;—a tone, alas! as inferior in real purity, conciseness, and energy, to that even of our immediate predecessors, as the Latin of the Lower Empire was to the tongue of the Augustine age. Now, if there be a re-action of taste on morals, as there too clearly is an action of morals on taste, it cannot be a point of little import whether we endeavour to oppose a barrier to this inundation of barbarism, or whether we tamely and silently suffer ourselves to be carried along with the stream. The duty of raising our voice, though for a while it may be unheard,

against these corruptions of the language of a long line of glorious Englishmen, is indeed manifest; and we will never cease on great or on little occasions, "in season or out of season," (if we may use such a phrase for our present purpose,) to remind every scholar and every lover of literature in the kingdom, that he ought to cling as fondly to the dignity, and the strength, and the honour of even the language of his country, as the Cato of Lucan cherished the very shadow of Roman freedom.

We must descend, we are aware, from a very considerable eminence, ere we can adapt these reflections and these feelings to the business immediately before us: but let our readers pause for a moment, and think of what we have said; — let them apply it in the next place to the great offenders in the way which we have mentioned; — and afterward let them gradually approach with us to 'The Legend of Iona.' We beg then to introduce those readers to a very gentle pair indeed, in a boat, upon the ocean!: but who the parties of this floating *tête-à-tête* may be, we cannot tell them, because, according to the rules and the established *mystification* of the ballad-school of poetry, this is perfectly an enigma.

The opening is really *pretty*:

' Day with his yellow locks bedewed
 In mellow evening's moistened air,
 Far in the ocean's solitude
 Had left a wandering pair.
 Long on their path was his delay,
 Slowly his parting ray withdrew,
 Till night came o'er their watery way,
 Glittering with stars and wet with dew.
 And the moonshine on the silvery ocean
 Lay floating in a playful motion,
 Like to a robe of slender lawn
 Over a virgin's bosom drawn.
 And the jewels of the pearly tide
 Joyfully danced on the vessel's side,
 As if in sportive love's delight,
 Enamoured of the beauteous freight.

' As a young mother's heart is blest,
 When with a loving eye she sees
 The sinless nursing of her breast
 Lie sleeping on her knees, —
 Happy was the young mariner,
 As he viewed his lovely bride,
 Amid the ocean's constant stir,
 Lie dreaming by his side.
 And while he watched the snowy sail,
 That dallied with the amorous gale,

Still,

Still, with the holiest looks of love,
He gazed upon his sleeping dove,
Watching, as if to be more blest,
The dreaming motions of her breast,
That seemed to tell of things to be,
And future love's felicity.

' On one so beautiful and dear
He would have gazed eternally,
And minded nought while she was near,
That was on earth or sea ;
But his earthly view, from sympathy,
In kindred dreams began to fail ;
While the little bark went merrily,
Steered by the tide and the gale.
Like twin babes in a cradle rocked,
With heart and soul together locked ;
The virgin pair with fancies blest,
Slumbered in visionary rest ;
While their dreaming souls together flew
To lands beyond a tyrant's view. —
But hark ! 'tis the keel on the yellow sand,
And the dreamers wake in the visioned land.'

Some parts of the above will obviously excite a smile*: but, as we have said, the passage is *pretty*: though, having said this, we are forced to add,

“ *Non satis est pulchra esse poemata ;*”

and, when the poet brings a third person on the scene, after the happy bridegroom has left it to seek food for his bride, and describes him as gazing on the sleeping lady, (like Cymon, we presume, on Iphigenia,—“shaded with a slight Cymaer,”) we do not allow that he is *pretty* any longer, but witness so extraordinary a representation with considerable disgust.

What *grammar* have we in the following couplet ?

‘ That here the goat might fear to stray,
And here the dreamer safely *lay* ;’

to say nothing of the sense.

Will our readers, or even those of ‘The Legend of Iona,’ really believe that the very lady above-mentioned, when —

‘ In silent wonder o’er her stood
A stranger clad in pilgrim’s grey,
And long her lovely form *reviewed*
As languidly in sleep she lay,’ —

* If the termination of the second of the two following lines were pronounced properly for the rhyme, how curious the effect would be :

‘ As if in sportive love’s delight,
Enamoured of the beauteous *freight* !’

that this very lady, we say, after such a *Review*,

‘ ——— though a virgin fear repress
The freedom of her friendly breast,
So ill her heart could she disguise
From a pilgrim *meek and hoary*,
She wiped the dew-drop from her eyes,
And told him all her story !’

We cannot conceive that, in such a position of affairs, the story can be worth hearing, and therefore we shall here leave it to its proper oblivion : — but we must take notice of a few of the usual licences, or (more properly speaking) barbarisms, of the romantic academy.

‘ Like wretch *respited* from the law.’

See “The Lord of the Isles,” whence this happy accentuation is borrowed.

‘ In dread suspense *the Lady screamed*,
“ Oh ! hast thou met my Lord !
And is he slain ? barbarian ! tell —
Aye, that red stream, I know it well,
It is my Owen’s, oh ! my God !
It is my murdered Owen’s blood !”’

‘ Along the bay’s *besilvered* plain.’

—— ‘ inward through the echoing arch
The boiling billows proudly *march*,
As if in triumph to *parade*
The wrecks and ruins they had made.’

‘ ——— Heaven’s eternal fires
Had riven the mountain’s breast asunder,
And *backed* it into domes and spires.’

Enough.

From some miscellaneous trifles at the end of the volume, we shall select a Sonnet. Both this and other passages in the poems shew that the author is capable of better things, but misled by a false theory of poetry, by the imitation of vicious examples, and by the professed inaccuracy and strenuous idleness of the present race of fashionable versifiers, who discard harmony and grammar *upon principle*.

‘ Fair moon, that, though reposing *all the while*
Still walkest thy journey through the heavenly deep,
Seeming a dreamer travelling in thy sleep,
Many bright eyes look up to thee and smile,
For thou hast beauty that can them beguile,
And in sweet reveries their senses steep :
Yet when I look upon thy light I weep,
And almost in my heart thy charms revile ;
For once enchanted with the glorious light

Of beauty's smile, in happier moments won,
I weened my golden day should have no night ;
And now beholding that its race is run,
Thou seemest, O dismal spectre ! to my sight
The pale cold ghost of my departed sun.'

ART. VII. *Old English Plays.* Being a Selection from the early Dramatic Writers. Vols. III. and IV. * 8vo. 12s. each, in Boards. Martin.

WE should scarcely have deemed it necessary to notice the farther progress of this work, which, being published in a periodical form, ought in strict conformity with our usual principle to have awaited the award of our criticism till its completion, but for two circumstances to which we wish to advert immediately. The first of these is that, out of the eight dramas comprized in the two volumes now under our inspection, two only are tragedies, the other six being comedies ; — a disproportion to which indeed the editor himself adverts in a note which assigns the reason of the preference given by him to the latter species of composition, in following the business of selection, but with which we ourselves and perhaps our readers in general can hardly be satisfied. We are willing to concede all the claims of occasional wit and humour, and broad strokes of character, which their greatest admirers can set up in favour of our old comic writers ; and to yield them the additional praise of being most valuable store-houses for antiquarian research and industry. None, indeed, can appreciate more highly than we do the pleasure and advantage which may be derived from thus having brought before us the true figures of our ancestors in their most familiar habits, and in the exercise of their daily and domestic occupations. Nevertheless, as compositions, — as evidences of inventive genius, and high poetic powers, — the comedies of our old minor dramatists do not by any means bear the same proportion of excellence to those of modern date which their tragedies may boast. Both are, for the most part, equally destitute of that regularity and consistency of plot and incident which are indispensable to the corrected judgment of the present age : but the grandeur of language and sentiment which invests the buskined muse, and constitutes the highest distinction of the Elizabethian period, finds no responsive eminence in the more doubtful virtues of the sock. When we turn our backs on Shakspeare, Jonson, and Fletcher, and one or two plays of Massinger, it is very

* See our Review for November last.

rarely that we can discover any thing like a well conceived and ably sustained character in the comedies of the antients; and the want of a pervading interest in the fable, which is compensated by the bursts of poetic sublimity that adorn their tragedies, is not relieved by any great redeeming merit in the other class of dramatic composition, but leaves those productions to drag on very lamely and heavily, with all except the lexicographer and the inquirer into the manners and customs of past ages.

By the preceding remarks, however, we do not mean to exclude comedy from the research of our revivers of the antient drama, but merely to induce a more just and equal distribution of the objects of their choice. Two volumes only remain to complete the present selection. In those that are already published, we have only four tragedies and twelve comedies; and we would willingly prescribe that the remainder of the work should be devoted to the former class alone, which would constitute an equality. Chapman has been far from exhausted; and we should certainly expect that his "*Alphonsus King of Arragon*," "*Revenge for Honour*," "*Revenge of Bussy D'Ambois*," "*Cæsar and Pompey*," and "*Chabot Admiral of France*," (which he wrote in conjunction with Shirley,) or some of them, at least, would find their way into the present collection. The editor has already begun with Middleton, and announces (which we are happy to see) his fine tragedy of "*Women beware Women*," for the next number. It may perhaps be succeeded by his "*Phoenix*." We earnestly hope that Webster, who abounds in poetical imagery, often of the sublunest description, will be suffered to contribute at least his "*Duchess of Malfy*," and his "*Appius and Virginia*;" possibly, also, his "*Thracian Wonder*," which, though not strictly a tragedy, possesses passages of considerable beauty. We would also mention Heywood's "*English Traveller*" and "*Rape of Lucrece*," and Tourneur's "*Atheist's Tragedy*."—Shirley would alone furnish a full complement for both the volumes: but the expectation, which we were taught some time since to entertain, and cannot willingly relinquish, of an entire collection of his works under the auspices of the editor of Massinger and Ben Jonson, induces us not to press his name forwards on the present occasion. Out of the works of Cartwright, Davenant, Lord Brooke, Carlell, Nabbes, and others, it would not be difficult to find tragedies abounding in poetical merit sufficient to form another collection of equal extent with the present. Many which are anonymous bear broad impressions of the true dramatic seal. The tragedy of "*Sicily and Naples, or the Fatal Union*," published in 1640, with the initials S. H., and ascribed (in Barker's List of Plays)

to Harding, contains passages of extraordinary merit, and is constructed on a plot of no mean interest. Those who are more conversant in this noble school of poetry, than we profess to be, would readily point out many other desirable acquisitions to the present editor's small stock of tragedies: but we are satisfied with having suggested to him the course which, it is our opinion, he would do well to pursue for the remainder of his work.

Our next object, in returning to the subject before the completion of the publication, is to notice a sort of answer which the editor has given to our former remarks on his labours; in which if he discovered, or apprehended, any undue severity of criticism, it was really far from our intention to convey such an impression. We are fully aware of the right of an editor of old plays to the indulgence which this gentleman claims; and our censure was confined (or at least meant to be confined) to instances of gross carelessness or inattention, for which the most candid reader would not admit the notorious deficiencies even of the "prompters' books" to be any adequate excuse. The more "inaccurate and barbarous" those precious "manuscripts" may be, the more it becomes the indispensable duty of a person undertaking the editorial functions to apply all the ingenuity of his mind to the task of restoration. We admit that the course which we recommended, of placing before the reader "both the corrupt and the amended passage" in "every case" of deviation from the former copies, may not be applicable so universally as the expression appears to import: though we had certainly imagined that it was sufficiently guarded from that construction which the editor has given to it, by the general tenor of our preceding observations; and that it could not have been understood to extend to the reprinting of entire scenes, or passages of any considerable length, merely on account of an amendment in the construction of the lines. In such instances, it is of course quite enough to notice the alteration in a general way at the commencement of the altered passage: but some such notice, at least, we continue to think, if not indispensable to the reader's security in the good faith of the editor, is the best pledge which that editor can give of his own accuracy and fidelity to his author. It is not our intention to resume the unwelcome office of seeking for instances of what we should deem editorial mismanagement, on the present occasion. At the commencement of the undertaking, we thought that we should ill discharge the duty which we owe to the public without offering such hints as, if deemed worthy of being adopted, would, in our judgment, best conduce to the improvement of the work in its progress; and, if our censures have

have been instrumental in inducing the editor to bestow such an accession of care and vigilance on his task as, we are happy to say, is abundantly manifest in the conduct of the two volumes now under our review, we hold ourselves intitled to his thanks for the stimulus which they afforded him. At all events, we can assure him that those censures were directed by the best wishes for the success of the design which has been placed under his management; and which it is our earnest desire to see executed in such a manner that it may afford a motive to farther advances in the restoration of our old dramatic authors.

It is now time to notice more particularly the contents of the volumes before us, which comprize Dekker's comedies of "The Wonder of a Kingdom" and "Old Fortunatus;" the tragedy of "Bussy D'Ambois," and the comedies of "Monsieur D'Olive" and "May-Day," by Chapman; "The Spanish Gipsy," a comedy, and "The Changeling," a tragedy, by Middleton and Rowley in conjunction; and "More Dissemblers besides Women," a comedy of the first of the last-mentioned writers. Dekker (or Decker, as his name is more usually written,) was hasty and slovenly even for that unrefined age, but abounding in strong and masculine conception: of which his "Honest Whore," in two parts, published in Dodsley's Collection, affords many noble proofs, notwithstanding the utter want of probability and connection in the plot and incidents. The beginning of the first of those plays, particularly, is conspicuous not only for its fine poetry but for its great dramatic effect; and, if separated from the rest of the body and applied to an entirely different structure, it might again excite the admiration of a theatre. The "Wonder of a Kingdom" contains many good comic materials, though so put together as to be destitute of all possible effect: but "Fortunatus" (which is improperly christened a comedy, since it belongs to no one of the numerous classes into which dramatic compositions have as yet been distributed, and may be called a Fairy Tale in Dialogue,) is equally extraordinary for poetical dignity and theatrical absurdity. It is in this magnificent language that the goddess Fortune is addressed by, and replies to, her disappointed votaries:

• Accursed queen of chance! what had we done,
Who having sometimes like young Phaetons,
Rid in the burnish'd chariot of the sun,
And sometimes been thy minions, when thy fingers
Wear'd wanton love-nets in our curled hair,
And with sweet juggling kisses warm'd our cheeks,
Oh! how have we offended thy proud eyes,
That thus we should be spurn'd and trod upon,
Whilst those infected limbs of the sick world,

Are fix'd by thee for stars, in that bright sphere,
Wherein our sun-like radiance did appear?

' *All the Kings.* Accursed queen of chance! damn'd sorceress!

' *The rest.* Most powerful queen of chance! dread sovereigness!

' *For.* No more! curse on; your cries to me are music,

And fill the sacred roundure of mine ears

With tunes more sweet than moving of the spheres.

Curse on! on our celestial brows do sit

Unnumber'd smiles, which then leap from their throne,

When they see peasants dance, and monarchs groan;

Behold you not this globe, this golden bowl,

This toy called world, at our imperial feet?

This world is Fortune's ball wherewith she sports.

Sometimes I strike it up into the air,

And then create I emperors and kings;

Sometimes I spurn it, at which spurn crawls out

That wild beast multitude: curse on, you fools,

'Tis I that tumble princes from their thrones,

And gild false brows * with glittering diadems;

'Tis I that tread on necks of conquerors,

And when like semi-gods they have been drawn

In ivory chariots to the capitol,

Circled about with wonder of all eyes,

The shouts of every tongue, love of all hearts;

Being swoln with their own greatness, I have prick'd

The bladder of their pride, and made them die,

As water bubbles (without memory):

I thrust base cowards into honour's chair,

Whilst the true spirited soldier stands by

Bare headed, and all bare; whilst at his scars

They scoff, that ne'er durst view the face of wars.

I set an idiot's cap on virtue's head,

Turn learning out of doors, clothe wit in rags,

And paint ten thousand images of loam

In gaudy silken colours: on the backs

Of mules and asses I make asses ride,

Only for sport to see the apish world

Worship such beasts with sound idolatry.

This Fortune does, and when all this is done,

She sits and smiles to hear some curse her name,

And some with adoration crown her fame.'

Our fastidious age has not yet gotten rid of the impression produced by the French critics, of the imperious sovereignty of what they denominate the laws of the drama. To constitute a regular composition, either in tragedy or comedy, the unity of action must unquestionably be preserved, and those of time and place not unnecessarily or wantonly, or at least not too

* Usurpers who had no legal title to the throne.'

flagrantly, violated. Yet why not admit, for the gratification of our appetite for variety, a *third* class even into the higher drama ; a species of exalted melo-drama, under which would be properly ranked the greater number of Shakspeare's historical pieces, and many of the finest plays of our other old writers, which cannot now be suffered on our theatres because all the admitted rules of composition are set at nought in their whimsical construction ? For our own part, we should delight in welcoming the neglected favourites of our ancestors, with something of the same feeling that is experienced in the reception of an old and valued friend of our fathers or grandfathers. Nay, we should like them the better for their gothic appendages of pageants and chorusses, to explain the intricacies of the fable ; and we can see no objection to the dramatic representation even of a series of ages in a single night, that does not apply to every description of poem which leads in perusal from the fire-side at which we are sitting, to a succession of remote periods and distant countries. If it be delightful to read the magic wonders of Ariosto, why should not the same species of delight extend itself to the ruder representation of the same wonders, transferring the poetical beauties of the narrative to those of recitation ? It is a great mistake to suppose that the excellence of the theatre depends on its apparent reality. To gross corporeal conception, no dramatic representation can ever convey the impression of reality. A man who is sitting at the theatre can, bodily speaking, never forget where he is, or that all which he sees is mere illusion. By the aid of imagination, he can indeed transport himself wherever the author or the actor points : but that powerful agent has no need of the unities to direct his operations ; and our rude forefathers could as easily believe "the wooden O" in which they were sitting to be the fields of Agincourt, notwithstanding they had just before placed themselves in the parliament-house at Westminster, as we can suppose the stage at Drury-lane to be an apartment in Lord Randolph's castle, or Mrs. Bartley to be the mournful mother of young Norval. In these matters, faith is all-powerful ; and, without her influence, the most chastely cold and critically correct of dramas is precisely as unreal as the "Midsummer Night's Dream" or the "Winter's Tale."

Chapman is the next of the dramatic authors now before us ; and we shall give the opening of his "Bussy D'Ambois" as a specimen of the vigorous and free style of our venerable English Homer.

' Fortune, not reason, rules the state of things ;
Reward goes backwards, honour on his head ;

Who

Who is not poor, is monstrous ; only need
 Gives form and worth to every human seed.
 As cedars beaten with continual storms,
 So great men flourish ; and do imitate
 Unskilful statuary, who suppose
 (In forming a Colossus) if they make him
 Straddle enough, strut, and look big, and gape,
 Their work is goodly : so men merely great
 (To their affected gravity of voice,
 Sourness of countenance, manners, cruelty,
 Authority, wealth, and all the spawn of fortune,)
 Think they bear all the kingdom's worth before them ;
 Yet differ not from those Colossic statues,
 Which with heroic forms without o'erspread,
 Within are nought but mortar, flint, and lead.
 Man is a torch borne in the wind ; a dream
 But of a shadow, summ'd with all his substance ;
 And as great seamen using all their wealth
 And skills in Neptune's deep invisible paths,
 In tall ships richly built and ribb'd with brass,
 To put a girdle round about the world,
 When they have done it (coming near their haven)
 Are fain to give a warning-piece, and call
 A poor stayed fisherman, that never past
 His country's sight, to waft and guide them in :
 So when we wander furthest through the waves
 Of glassy glory and the gulfs of state,
 Topp'd with all titles, spreading all our reaches,
 As if each private arm would sphere the earth,
 We must to virtue for her guide resort,
 Or we shall shipwreck in our safest port."

The character of Bussy is grandly conceived ; and the relation of the combats between him and Barrisor, and their respective friends, is so animated and poetic, that it is more calculated to transport the hearer to that latter age of chivalry, and make him feel the actual reality of what passes before him, than all the productions which the "classic drama" ever brought forth. It strikes us as by no means impossible, that an interesting play might now be produced by a judicious combination of this with its continuation, or second part, "The Revenge of Bussy," which certainly ought to have been published together with it in the present collection. In "Monsieur D'Olive," we do not see much to recommend. "May-Day" is of a description somewhat more light and pleasing : but it is doing great injustice to Chapman to present him in his comic dress to the reader who is not yet fully acquainted with his tragedies, which are by far the highest of his productions. "The Spanish Gipsy" of Middleton and Rowley is, on the whole, a very favourable specimen of antient comedy ; and all the early part
of

of it, though involving an incident unfit for modern representation, is full of dramatic interest and theatrical effect. "The Changeling" is a tragedy formed on a story of no mean attraction, which is to be found in Reynolds's "God's Revenge against Murder," where it is intitled "Alsernero and Beatrice Joanna:" but, though this story forms the principal plot of the drama, its name is (by an absurdity too common among the early writers) assigned to it by a very inferior personage, who has nothing to do with that which is the main and indeed the only interest of the piece. Mr. Hayley's tragedy of "Marcella" is founded on the same plot, and, as it seems, without reference to this elder drama, — perhaps without knowledge of it. We have not had an opportunity of comparing them: but the editor, who has done this, furnishes a few remarks by way of introduction, which appear to be sufficiently just and well founded. Indeed, however dramatic may be the plot itself, the manner in which it is treated by our two old dramatists is much too disgusting for modern refinement and delicacy. The merit of the play, such as it possesses, is almost confined to that part of it which is borrowed, the story; and it has little of poetic language or fancy to recommend it.

In the last of the dramas now before us "More Dissemblers besides Women," greater theatrical art and management are displayed than in most of these old plays; and its author, Middleton, appears to have been distinguished among his contemporaries for this talent, as the following lines evince:

"Tom Middleton his numerous issue brings,
And his last muse delights us when she sings:
His halting age a pleasure doth impart;
And his white locks shew *master of his art.*"

'Modern authors,' observes the editor, 'also seem inclined to place him as one of the first in the second class of writers:' but this is in respect of the quality above noticed. He seems to have none of those fine poetical common-places, which strike so frequently and forcibly on the imagination in the writings of Chapman, Webster, and others of our minor dramatists, as to place them for the moment side by side with Shakspeare.

It is now time to terminate our second visit to this valuable collection. We have purposely abstained from entering again on this occasion into the lists of verbal criticism with the editor; and we take our leave of him with a renewed assurance, that nothing but the interest which we feel in the good success of his labours would have induced us to be so free with him in a former instance.

ART. VIII. *Archæologia: or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity.* Vol. XVII.

[Article concluded from our last Number.]

WE lose no time in making our report of the remaining contents of this last volume published by the Society of Antiquaries.

An Account of some Roman Remains near Llandrindod, in a letter from the Rev. Thomas Price. — This paper, which is of no great interest, and might have been condensed in the Appendix, describes the vestiges of eighteen small Roman camps, extending for the space of a mile and a half along the Roman road near Llandrindod; and of a circle formed with a strong breast-work on the side of a hill. Mr. Price conjectures that this was the circus or amphitheatre in which the Roman soldiers held their games or shews: but this is a mere supposition, and not very probable.

Communication of an inedited Fragment of Anglo-Saxon Poetry, in a letter from the Rev. J. J. Conybeare, M.A. Anglo-Saxon Professor in the University of Oxford. — No longer can this fragment be classed among inedited works: but it scarcely merited publication, except as a curiosity of the 12th century. It occurs towards the conclusion of a manuscript-volume of Homilies in the Bodleian Library, and contains the Speech of Death; in which we are told that, before we were born, we were ordained to die.

Account of a Saxon Manuscript preserved in the Cathedral Library of Exeter, in a Letter from the Same. — It is stated in the beginning of this letter that

‘ Among the inedited Saxon manuscripts at this day existing in the collections either of individuals or public bodies, there are probably few superior in interest to the volume of Miscellaneous Poetry given by Leofric, the first Bishop of Exeter, to the cathedral church of that diocese, and still preserved in its capitular library.

‘ Either from the remote situation in which it is deposited, or the little curiosity which, from the days of Hickes till within these few years, has been excited by subjects of this description, this valuable monument of the language and genius of our forefathers (which may safely claim an antiquity of seven centuries and a half) has hitherto been known only by the scanty and somewhat inaccurate synopsis of its contents given by Wanley in his Catalogue of Saxon Manuscripts.’

The reader will certainly feel himself obliged to Mr. C. for the attention here bestowed on the poetry of Leofric, which is contained in a moderately sized folio, and written in continuous lines, resembling prose, after the manner of the age; as well as for the translations which he has subjoined to the

several specimens. The Saxon original is accompanied by a Latin version, line by line, to which the Professor has added an English poetic translation. Perhaps the best method that we can adopt, to satisfy all parties, will be to present a portion of the Saxon poem as here edited by Mr. Conybeare:

* ABSTRACT OF THE POEM,

* Commencing p. 16. of the Exeter MS.

Thæt is thær wýrthe	Hoc est operæ pretium
Thæt tbe weptheobe	Ut humanum genus
Secgan dýrthe thona	Dicat Domino gratias
Duxurha zehpýlcne	(Ob) beneficia singula
The us riþ 7 æp	Quæ nobis nunc et olim
Simle gefremede.	Sæpe intulit.
Thuph monig fealbpa	Per multiplicem
Mæxna zepýno	Potestatem habitationes
He us æt ziefes	Ille nobis addidit,
And ahta-geþ,	Et possessionum gazas,
Welan ofen wib lomb,	Divitias super latam terram,
And weþen lithe.	Et tempestatem mitem.
Unþer fweyles hleo,	Sub cœli umbraculo
Sunne 7 Mona,	Sol et Luna,
Aethelart cuncla,	Nobilissima sidera,
Eallum feinath.	Omnibus nitent,
Heofon canbelle,	Cœli lampades,
Hælethum on eopþan.	Viris in terra.
Dneoreth deap,	Cadit Ros,
And þen duxurthe,	Et pluvia bona
Weccath to feopþ nepe.	Excitatur longe lateque
Fipa cýnne,	Humano generi,
Jecath eopþ pelan.	Auget terræ divitias.

* Befits it well that man should raise
 To Heav'n the song of thanks and praise,
 For all the gifts a bounteous God
 From age to age hath still bestow'd.
 The kindly seasons temper'd reign,
 The plenteous store, the rich domain
 Of this mid-earth's extended plain,
 All that his creatures wants could crave,
 His boundless pow'r and mercy gave.
 Noblest of yon bright train that sparkle high,
 Beneath the vaulted sky,
 The Sun by day, the silver'd Moon by night,
 Twin fires of heav'n, dispense for man their useful light.
 Where'er on earth his lot be sped,
 For Man the clouds their richness shed,
 In gentler dews descend, or op'ning pour
 Wide o'er the land their fertilizing shower.'

A subsequent letter contains a farther extract made by the Professor from the Exeter manuscript. * Its subject, &c.
 Repros

Reproach of a Spirit in misery to the body which it formerly inhabited, will doubtless be recognized by those who are conversant with our early poetry as one upon which the genius of our minstrels, or rather perhaps of our monastic versifiers, was not unfrequently exercised. The exordium of this ancient composition will be found, if (says Mr. C.) I have rightly translated the passage in question, which is somewhat obscure, to contain a singular instance of popular superstition relative to the time during which the soul was permitted to revisit the earth after its separation from the body.' We shall present the reader with merely the English translation :

‘ Befits it well that man should deeply weigh
His soul’s last journey ; how he then may fare
When Death comes on him, and breaks short in twain
The bond that held his flesh and spirit link’d ;
Long is it thence ere at the hand of Heav’n
The Spirit shall reap or joy or punishment,
E’en as she did in this her earthly frame.
For ere the seventh night of Death hath past,
Ghastly and shrieking shall that Spirit come,
The Soul to find its body,—restless thus,
(Unless high Heav’n first work the end of all things)
An hundred years thrice told the shade shall roam.
With chilling voice that sad and mournful ghost
Upbraids its kindred earth. “ Thou hapless dust,
How fares it with thee now ! how dost thou waste
A foul and earthy mass ! full little erst
Thy thoughts were of that journey which the Soul,
Driv’n from her fleshly tenement, is doom’d to !
To what sad fate, oh wretched food of worms !
Hast thou reduced me,—little thoughtest thou
How long and dreary was my destin’d way.” ’

This paper is followed by another communication from Mr. C. intitled, *Account of an Anglo-Saxon Paraphrase of the Phœnix attributed to Lactantius, contained in the Exeter MS.* — The paraphrase, which is curious as being found in an Anglo-Saxon poem, is an expansion of a Latin original still in existence, attributed to Lactantius, and printed at the end of the Variorum edition of Claudian. It commences,

“ *Est locus in primo felix Oriente remotus.*”

In another part of the volume, we are presented by Professor C. with *Observations on the Metre of the Anglo-Saxon Poetry* ; and with a supplemental paper, intitled, *Further Observations, &c.* — Here the authorities both of Dr. Hickes and of Mr. Tyrwhitt are combated ; Mr. C. yielding neither to the opinion of the former, who asserted that the Anglo-Saxon

poetry was regulated by the legitimate rules of Latin prosody, nor to that of the latter, who has declared that he can discover in the productions of our Saxon bards no traces of a regular metrical system, or even of that alliteration which had hitherto been regarded as their invariable characteristic; perceiving, as he says, “no difference between the poetry and the prose of that people, further than the employment of a more inflated diction and inverted construction of sentence, in that to which the former title was usually affixed.” The Professor has investigated the subject with much industry, and the opinions which he offers are supported by a weight of evidence. His positions are that ‘the Anglo-Saxon poetry does really differ from their prose by the usage of metrical divisions, and that the general rhythm and cadence of their verse is not altogether undiscoverable.’ In proof of the former, he thinks it would be sufficient to advert to the different methods of punctuation in the prosaic and poetic manuscripts of the Saxons: but, not relying solely on this circumstance, he proceeds to adduce a specimen in which ‘the poetry is broken into similar members, not only by the usual method of rhythmical punctuation, but in the one instance by the alternate insertion of lines written in the Latin language, and in the other by the employment of final rhyme.’ This specimen is taken from a translation of the Phoenix of Lactantius; and, as an evidence not less curious than important, we shall here insert it:

‘It is written in lines alternately Anglo-Saxon and Latin, and runs thus:

‘ Hapath ur a/ŷfeð	Nos in vitam eduxit
Luciŷ Auctop	
Thæt pe motun heŷ	Uti possemus hic
Meŷueŷn	
Gob bæbum begietan	Virtutibus acquirere
Gaudia in cœlo,	
Thæt pe motun	Uti possemus
Maxima pegna	
Secan, and eŷittan	Acquirere, & sedere
Seðibuŷ, altiŷ,	
Liŷgan in hiŷe	Vivere in mansione
Luciŷ et paciŷ,	
Aŷan capðingæ	Possidere habitacula
Alma lætitiæ	
Bŷucan blað-baga	Potiri fructu diurno
Blaðam & mittem,	Blando et miti
Leŷeon ŷigopa ŷŷean	Adŷpicere gloriæ Dominum
Sine ŷine,	
And him loŷ ŷingan	Et ei gratias canere
Laube pepenni	
Eabŷe mið Englum,	Felices cum Angelis.
Alleluia.’	

‘ It will be immediately perceived, that such of these Latin verses as are at all consonant to the rules of prosody, belong either to the Trochaic or Dactylic species, and consist each of two feet. Those which are not reducible to this standard seem yet to be written in imitation of it, with the substitution (as was common in the Latin poetry of the middle ages) of emphasis for quantity. Thus “ Sine, fine,” “ Blandam et, mitem,” and “ Alnia lætitia,” may be considered respectively as equivalent to a Trochaic, an Adoniac, and a Dactylic line.’

From Cædmon, Mr. C. gives examples both of the longer and the shorter kinds of metre; and, returning to his other document, after a diligent examination of its contents, he thus classes the different kinds of verse used in that composition :

‘ 1. Those which may at first sight be recognized as Trochaic or Dactylic ; these are by far the most numerous, as,

‘ Elengeð, hipum
Bliffa, bleoum
Blortma, hipum

Liffe mab, longum
Leoma ge, longum

Spitthe ne, minfabe

Hopfce mec, hepebon
Hilbe ge, nepebon.

‘ 2. Of the Trochaic species, with the Hypercatalectic syllable, as,

Ahte ic, ealbon; rcol
Lalbon, popbum, gol.

Wær on, lagu, rpeame, lab
Thær me, leothu, ne bi, glab.

‘ 3. Lines of three syllables (similar to those mentioned above), as,

Tīn, pelgæbe
Blæb, bliffæbe

Epæft, hafath

Tpeop, thpaz
If to, tpaç.

While Mr. C. ventures on this attempt at classification, he honestly confesses that, in this and in all the metrical compositions of the Saxons with which he is acquainted, many lines occur which he is unable to reduce to an agreement with his metrical system. A farther discovery is announced in the supplementary observations, which we shall exhibit in the author's own words.

‘ There is one peculiarity of construction occurring in the poetical remains of the Anglo-Saxons, which, as far as my knowledge extends, has not been mentioned by any preceding writer ; and which, nevertheless, is so generally prevalent in them, as to preclude, I think, all supposition of its being other than the effect of design. I mean an artificial arrangement of the several phrases or clauses of which the sentence is constituted, in a manner somewhat resembling that observed by Bishop Lowth in the sacred poetry of the Hebrews, and termed by that illustrious scholar *Parallelism*.’

“The metrical system, thus offered as explanatory of the structure of Anglo-Saxon poetry, Mr. C. is aware may be treated as mere hypothesis : but he is convinced that the systematic use of alliteration is entirely of Celtic origin.—We cannot make farther extracts from these contributions to the Society : but to those persons who are studying Saxon literature they will afford instruction and pleasure.

An Account of the Register of Persons who sought Sanctuary at St. John of Beverley in Yorkshire, preserved among the Harleian Manuscripts in the British Museum, in a Letter from Henry Ellis, Esq. F.R.S. and A.S.—All the value of this communication consists in the copy of a sanctuary-oath, the only one that Mr. E. remembers to have seen, taken from the back of one of the pages of the register ; which is written on vellum, and contains the names of persons who sought sanctuary for different crimes, in the reigns of Edward IV., Henry VII., and Henry VIII. He who reads this oath will rejoice that those times of ignorance, priestcraft, and semi-barbarism have passed away :

‘ The bailiff of the town, by whom the oath was administered, is directed to enquire of the refugee “ what man he killed, and wher with, and both ther names : and than gar hym lay his hand vppon the book, saying on this wyse,

‘ Sir tak hede on your oth. Ye shalbe trew and feythful to my Lord Archbishop of York, lord off this towne, to the provest of thessame, to the chanons of this chirch, and all othir minstr’s therof.

‘ Also ye shall bere gude hert to the baillie and xii governars of this town, to all burges’ and comyners of thessame.

‘ Also ye shall bere no poynted wapen, dagger, knyfe, ne none other wapen ayenst the kyngs pece.

‘ Also ye shalbe redy at all your power if ther be any debate or stryf or od sothan case of fyre within the town to help to s’cess it.

‘ Also ye shalbe redy at the obite of Kyng Adelstan, at the Dirige and the Messe at such tyme as it is done at the warnyng of the belman of the town, and do your dewte in ryngyng, and for to offer at the messe on the morne, so help you god and thies holy Evangelists.’

“ And then gar hym kysse the Book.” ’

A Memoir on the State of Norham Castle in the Time of Henry VIII., communicated from a Cottonian Manuscript in the British Museum. By the Same.—This indeed is a curious memoir, and is calculated to afford a tolerably correct idea of the economy and general expence attending the keeping up of an antient fortress. That part of it which relates to the provisioning of the castle has been copied by Mr. Pinkerton, in his *History of Scotland*; but the particulars respecting the means of

defence are not less worthy of notice. Military men of the present day will be amused by the following detail :

‘ And asfor Ordinance, it is knowen by Indenture, wherof one part remaynyth w^t maister Chancellor, what remaynyth in the said Castell ; first, of grete peces, a Saker, two Faucons, a Fawcon of maister Chancellars, viij small Serpentyne going upon iij pare of wheles of metall, a grete Slaing of Irn, and iij Serpentyne, whereof one has no chambres. Asfor Haggbusshes ther is metely enowe. And so we have never one pece nor a serpentyne for the fowr bullwarks w^t the two yatchouses in the vltre ward. Asfor gonpowder ther is metly of it to be doing w^tall. And ther must be certain Brimstone and sauf peter be provided for to th^tintent that a gonner may sharp it, for I fere me that ther is overmiche cole in it, whereby it is something flatt, as I perceive it upon my hand when I burn it.

‘ And asfor Arrowes ther is certain of them, howbeit bereason of evill keping they want fedres, wherby many of them will do no good unto suche tyme as a fletcher have them throwghe hand : and as for Bowes ther is none but only xlⁱⁱ whiche is of none effect, x of them not able. And therfor ther must be provided for Cth or CCth of good Bowes, for common Store-Bowes are of none effect.’

A Memoir on the Office of Cuneator. By the Rev. Rogers Ruding, B.D. F.S.A.—In the Anglo-Norman mints, the person who bore the title of *Cuneator* was of great importance; and Mr. Ruding, though not able to trace the origin of his office, which was of high antiquity and hereditary, clearly explains its nature and the reason for its abolition :

‘ The engravers of the dies seem to have been appointed by him, and to have been under his immediate cognizance. By him they were presented to the Barons of the Exchequer, before whom they took the usual oath of office ; and it was probably his duty to see that all the dies, as well those which were used in the paramount mint in the Tower of London, as those which were issued from thence to the subordinate mints, were of the same type. This was a circumstance of great moment whilst so many mints were allowed to be worked in various parts of the kingdom ; but when they were abolished, and the mint in the Tower became the only source from whence the coins were derived, this precaution was no longer necessary, and the office soon sank into disuse.’

Such notices as Mr. R. has been able to collect respecting the *Cuneators* are subjoined, as well as a list of the names of persons who held this office, from William I. or II. to Richard II. : but the *Cuneators* cannot be traced lower than this latter reign. A Master of the Mint was no doubt appointed in the subsequent reigns, but not with the title of *Cuneator*.

Copy of an Indenture of Retainer, relating to the Expedition against France in the 19th Year of King Henry VI. With a
M, 4 Letter

Letter from the King to the Bishop of Bath his Chancellor. Communicated by Samuel Lysons, Esq. V. P. F.R.S. &c.

Transcript of an original Letter from King Edward the Fourth, when Earl of March, and his Brother the Earl of Rutland, to their Father Richard Duke of York, preserved among the Cotton Manuscripts in the British Museum. Communicated by Henry Ellis, Esq. F.R.S. Secretary. — ‘Its chief singularity is the use of the word *natural* as implying *legitimate* son.’

Records of this nature become interesting as they serve to carry us backwards to the state of society and the mode of prosecuting war at the periods to which they belong. The indenture and letters here copied are curious in this view. They also exhibit obsolete modes of spelling. *Ludlow* is written *Lodelowe*.

Conjectures concerning the Instruments called Celts. By R. P. Knight, Esq. F.A.S. — Little besides conjecture is offered in this paper, with reference to the application of the instruments denominated Celts: but Mr. Knight amuses himself with a trick put on Count Caylus, who in his *Recueil d'Antiquités* has given representations of celts, which he says were sent to him from Herculaneum:

‘As this buried city has been from the time of its discovery to the present day, the common source, from which every Italian dealer in antiquities derives his wares, especially those of his own manufacture, and as none ever found their way into the Royal Museum of Portici, or came to the knowledge of those vigilant directors and superintendants of the subterranean researches, Camillo Paderni and Father Antonio; or to that of the no less watchful observer of their results, Sir William Hamilton, we may safely conclude that the Count was imposed upon; and that these articles, sent to him from Naples, had either been brought there from the north-western parts of Europe, or, what is more likely, made there on purpose for him.’

Mr. K. thinks that no celts have been discovered in any of the more southern or eastern parts of the Roman empire, while many hundreds of them have been found in every part of the British isles; and probably they were instruments peculiar to Gaul and Britain. Dr. Lort, in the 5th volume of the *Archæologia*, adopting the opinion of Hearne, supposes that these celts were Roman chissels employed in cutting and polishing stone: but Mr. K. does not assent to this conjecture; ‘because the greatest part of them having been fixed by grooves into their handles, and not having their handles inserted into sockets, could not have resisted the blows of the hammer, applied as they necessarily must be in hewing stone.’ This reason, however, is not altogether conclusive, unless we knew the manner in which the wooden handle was fastened: those which have a loop annexed
to

to the socket might have been employed in a different way from those that were without sockets. It is very likely that these celts were substitutes for the weapons and working tools of our remote ancestors, which were of flint; and many of them seem to be adapted to the handle of an axe or adze. Whether the antient Gauls and Britains were taught by Phœnicians, Carthaginians, Greeks, or Romans, to construct these instruments, is a point not now to be ascertained; nor can we do more than conjecture respecting the manner in which the wooden shaft or helve was applied. Probably, those with loops were made firm on their handles by means of bandages. If, however, we turn to plate X. of Vol. V., and inspect the view of those celts which are in Sir William Hamilton's Collection in the British Museum, we must pronounce them to be hatchets; and if those that are mentioned by Homer, *Od. T. 373.*, were of a similar construction, it would be easy to shoot a dart through the aperture intended to receive the handle; so that the difficulty which Mr. K. supposes disappears, and his gloss is rendered unnecessary. We may add that, in the trial of skill proposed by Ulysses, in the passage to which Mr. Knight refers, it is natural to conclude that neither the heads of the twelve axes were used without their handles, nor the handles without the heads: but that six complete axes were placed in a row on one side, and six on the other, the heads of the axes touching each other and making a kind of arch, resembling that which is formed by a double row of trees, (*δρυόχυσος*) and that through this space the arrow was shot.

Enumeration and Explanation of the Devices formerly borne as Badges of Cognizance by the House of York, in a letter from Henry Ellis, Esq. Secretary. — The memorandum containing information respecting the several devices of Richard Duke of York, father of King Edward IV., was discovered by Mr. Ellis, as he was searching the Digby MSS. in the Bodleian Library; and he wishes that a similar memorandum of the badges of the House of Lancaster could be found. This catalogue of Devices shews the origin of many of our popular signs; as the Rose, White Hart, Black Bull, Blue Boar, &c. The last is said to be the badge that he 'beryth by Kyng Edward, with his tuskis, and his cleis, and his membrys of golde.'

Account of some Lids of Stone Coffins discovered in Cambridge Castle in 1810. By the Rev. T. Kerrich, M.A. F.S.A. (Principal Librarian to the University of Cambridge. — Nothing worthy of notice occurs in this short paper, which is accompanied by two drawings of the broken lids.

A Description and Copy of an ancient Roll, preserved in the Library of the Advocates at Edinburgh. By Nicholas Carlisle, Esq.

Esq. Secretary. — The ancient roll here copied is Bagimont's (or Bayamond's) taxed Roll of Benefices within the Kingdom of Scotland, the date of which is about the year 1275, and of which Mr. Carlisle has made much use in his valuable topographical dictionary of Scotland; though the terms Rectory and Vicarage, employed in "*The Auld Taxation*" of Bagimont, are not now applied to the Scottish benefices. Should episcopacy ever be revived in Scotland, this roll would become an inestimable document. At present, it is an uninteresting record, and occupies pages which might have been better filled.

An Account of some Druidical Remains in the Island of Guernsey. By Joshua Gosselin, Esq. — A more accurate conception may be formed of the druidical Temple, or rather Cromlech, here described, by the help of the annexed plates, than by the perusal of Mr. G.'s letter, though clearly written. The remains which he describes were discovered on the left of Lancesse Bay, covered by sand to the depth of three or four feet. The length of the Cromlech, composed of several large stones, resting on smaller stones, is 32 feet. The largest weighs about 20 tons, and the greatest width between the supporting stones is 12 feet. A quantity of human and of other animal bones was found in it; and other Cromlechs of the same kind are described.

Three Letters from the Cotton Manuscript Vespasian, F. XIII. Communicated by Henry Ellis, Esq. F.R.S. Secretary. — These letters are curious, and we are obliged to Mr. Ellis for copying them, though we have not felt very grateful for all his transcripts. Of the three letters contained in this article, which are specimens of the epistolary style in the reign of Henry VIII., the first is written by the King, with his own hand but without date, to Wolsey, at a time when the Cardinal was at the pinnacle of favour and greatness; the second is from Wolsey, immediately after his fall, to Secretary Cromwell; and the third is addressed to Cromwell, from the widow of Lord Rochford, who was beheaded.

Description of the Reading Desk of the Abbey Church of Evesham, in Worcestershire. By Edward Rudge, Esq. F.R.S. A.S. and L.S. — The desk here described is composed of a block of white marble. It was dug up in a garden of one of Mr. Rudge's tenants, near the site of the Abbey Church; and of the four sides, which are richly carved, in *mezzo-relievo*, the principal front represents St. Egwin, Bishop of Worcester, the founder of the Abbey, with his crosier in the *left* hand, and other ornaments. This description is accompanied by two plates.

Original.

Original Papers addressed to King James I. and King Charles I. on the Subject of the Duke of Buckingham, and Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset. Communicated by Samuel Lysons, Esq. V.P. F.R.S. — We cannot afford our readers a better insight into the nature of these papers than by transcribing Mr. Lysons's introductory letter.

‘ The inclosed original papers were put into my hands a few weeks since by Lord Sinclair at Nisbett-house, in Berwickshire, where his Lordship found them, when he became possessed of that ancient seat of the Carr family; these had been carefully preserved, with other family papers, in a small box. The first of them, addressed to King James the First, by whose command it appears to have been written, contains a variety of charges against the Duke of Buckingham; and was probably drawn up by Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset, the former favourite, thought it is not in his hand-writing, being evidently a fair copy made by a secretary. The two other papers addressed to King Charles the First, in favour of the Earl of Somerset, are written in a very neat hand in letters of gold, and both endorsed with the descriptions here prefixed to them, in the Earl's hand-writing.’

On the peaceable Justs or Tiltings of the middle Ages. By Francis Douce, Esq. F. S. A. — This paper affords an account of those harmless tiltings which, in the age of chivalry, were performed for the amusement of ladies and other spectators; and in which the successful knights received some prize from the hand of a fair and courteous damsel. Pointless lances or coronels being used in these encounters, they were called by the French “*Joutes à plaisance*,” and in the Latin of the middle ages “*Hastiludia pacifica*,” in opposition to the serious and sanguinary tournaments denominated “*Joutes à outrance*.” Mr. Douce presents the reader with a transcript from a MS. in the British Museum, giving a detailed account of the whole ceremonial which was observed on these occasions; together with an explanation of most of the obsolete terms employed in the description. A proper supplement is furnished in the next article, intitled,

Copy of a Roll of Purchases made for the Tournament of Windsor Park, in the Sixth of King Edward the First, preserved in the Record Office at the Tower. Communicated by Samuel Lysons, Esq. &c. — It clearly appears from this curious document, that very expensive preparations were made for these tilting matches:

‘ The Roll is written on two membranes, and contains two accounts, the first being of articles purchased by the hands of Adinett the taylor; and under the inspection of Albin and Robert de Dorset, entitled, “*Emptiones facte per manum Adinetti Cissoris et visu Albin & Roberti de Dorset contra Torniammentum de Parco de Wind-*”
sore,

care, *nona die Julii annos exto.*" The second is an account of purchases made at Paris for the King and Queen, and their children, by the same Admett.*—

* Armour was provided for all the knights. It appears to have been of leather gilt : and various sums, from 7s. to 25s. were paid for making and gilding each suit, to the three persons employed, *viz.* the tailor, Salvag' the tailor, and Reymunde de Burdiens. At the end of this item of the account, there is a memorandum, stating, that each suit of armour consisted of a tunic, a surcoat, a pair of *ailettes*†, a creel, a shield, a helmet of leather, and a sword of balen‡.

* The sum of three shillings was paid for the carriage of the armour from London.

* The shields were of wood, and provided by Stephen the joiner at 10s. each. Peter the tinsmith provided the thirty-eight swords, made of steel and parchment at 7d. apiece, and was paid 25s. for the scabbards, and 3s. 6d. for gilding the pomels and hilts with pure gold.

* Another sum of 100s. was paid for gilding with pure gold twelve *haubergeons* of the highest rank ; and for silvering the rest of the same kind, at the rate of 8d. each.

* Another sum of 100s. was paid for thirty-eight head-pieces of leather, *viz.* 10s. each, and thirty-eight pair of little *haubergeons* of the same kind. Richard Paternoster provided 100s. for sixteen skins for making bridles, and half a dozen *haubergeons*, and twelve dozen silken cords for tying the *haubergeons*. Seventy-six calf skins were provided for making the *haubergeons*.

* The sum total of the articles provided in England, was fourscore pounds eleven shillings and eight-pence.

* The articles procured from Paris consisted chiefly of furs of various kinds, for the use of the royal family, the King's couch, the Queen's mantle, &c. amounting in the whole to 608l. 18s. 6d. of Paris. Canvass, fine linen towells, &c. amounting to 130l. 18s. 6d. Saddles richly embroidered with gold and silver, eight of them with the arms of England, and others with those of the knights, and two for the King's mule, amounting to 280l. 14s. 2d. Among the minute articles are half-a-dozen pair of double gloves, which cost 35s. and the same quantity of buckskin gloves for the King, 60s. Two

* * *Par allet*, from *ailette*, a little wing : these, no doubt, are the singular appendages to the shoulders, which appear on the monumental effigies and other representations of the knights of this period, and are to be seen on that of Roger de Trumpington, whose name occurs in this roll.

* † Probably a sword wrapped round with woollen list or cloth, for the purpose of blunting its edge. Ducange voce *Balenja*, says, "*Armoriciis hodie Balen vell Ballen, lecti operimentum lanceum.*" J. B.

ivory

ivory combs for the King, 32s. 8d. Four green and three red carpets for the King's chamber, 28l. A velvet covering for the head of the King's bed, 100s. A cloth dyed in grain for the Lord Alphonso, 40l. Two tireteyns mixt in grain, 78l. 15s.

‘ For Robinet's expences with the King's robe from Paris to Glastonbury, with the hire of his horse, 20s.

‘ The sum total of the expences at Paris was 1429l. 5s. of Paris, being 1781l. 7s. 9½d. Tournois, and 447l. 12s. 5d. sterling.’

These items manifest that much shew and display were affected at the tournaments, and that they must have been very costly.

Observations on some antient Methods of Conveyance in England; by Henry Ellis, Esq. &c.—Lawyers will find by this amusing communication that, in former times, (from about the middle of the eleventh to the close of the thirteenth century,) the mode of conveyance, or of giving livery of seisin or possession, was very simple, and effected without their interference. The church managed these matters; and the form of transferring property was by depositing a knife, a cup, or drinking-horn, a cross, a copy of the Gospel, or even a walking-staff or branch of a tree, on the altar. Of many instances of this simple mode of antient conveyancing, we shall quote one :

‘ The church of York was endowed with a considerable portion of land by Wlphus, who gave his drinking Horn of Ivory with it, and by virtue of which the Chapter hold the same, the cup being to this day in their possession.

‘ HIC CULTELLUS FUIT FULCHERI DE BUOLO, PER QUEM WIDO DEDIT AREAS DROGONIS ARCHIDIACONI ECCLESIE SANCTÆ MARIE ANTE EANDEM ECCLESIAM SITAS PRO ANNI-VERSARIO MATRIS SUÆ.

‘ That is,

“ This knife belonged to Faucher de Beuil, by which Guy hath given to the Church of St. Mary the areas or open space before the said Church, which belonged to Drogo the Archdeacon, for an Anniversary Service for his Mother.” ’

To the articles (38 in number) composing the bulk of this volume, is subjoined an Appendix, which consists of an historical Memoir formed, in consequence of a resolution of the council of this Society, out of communications which it did ‘ not think proper to publish entire.’ In this abstract we meet with an account of the *Opening of a Barrow* on Reigate Heath, by Ambrose Glover, Esq.;—of *the Monastery of Sion*, founded by Henry V. at Isleworth in 1415, the site of which is now the property of the Duke of Northumberland, by the Rev. John Milner,

Milner, D.D. F.A.S. ;— of *Celts and Spear Heads*, dug up near Holderness, by John Crosse, Esq. F.A.S. ;— of *some Gold and Silver Coins* of the Lower Empire, contained in two earthen pots, which were dug up by a labourer at Cleeve near Evesham, in the site of a Roman road, by the Rev. S. Weston, F.S.A. ;— of three *Cinerary Urns of earthen Ware* found at Bexley, exhibited by J.V. Thompson, Esq. ;— of a *Mosaic Pavement and other Antiquities* at and near Dorchester; and also the *Remains of a leaden Coffin*, found in the Kent-road, the lid of which was bordered, and divided into five compartments, in the upper of which were two figures of Minerva and in the lower two scallop shells ; both by the Rev. T. Rackett, F.S.A. ;— of *two Urns, with the Skeleton of a Man* which measured seven feet, discovered at Aulcester, Warwickshire, by Jos. Brandish, Esq. ;— of *forty Roman Copper Coins* found in an earthen Vessel, near Wakefield, by Thomas Pitt, Esq. ;— of a *Silver Broche*, found in a Bog near Ballymoney, Ireland, by Richard Gregory, Esq. F.A.S. ;— of *Errata, or Alterations*, in the article on the antient Font in the Church of South Kilvington, printed in the *Archæologia*, Vol. xvi. pp. 341, 342., respecting the family of Lord Scrope, by Rob. Darley Waddilove, D.D. F.S.A. Dean of Ripon ;— of a *Stone Coffin containing a Skeleton and three Glass Vessels*, discovered near St. Alban's, by James Brown, Esq. F.A.S. ;— of *some Celts and a Sword in high Preservation*, found by some miners who were steaming for tin in a meadow called Long Moor, in Cornwall, by the Rev. F. Vyvyan Jago, F.A.S. ;— of an *Urn found in a Barrow* at Berling, near Eastbourn, by Davies Giddy, Esq. M.P. ;— and of *the Original Matrix of a Seal*, representing the martyrdom of Saint Thomas of Canterbury, which was discovered near Baldock, by Thomas Clutterbuck, Esq. F.A.S.

The contents of this Appendix brought to our recollection the old Latin line,

“ *Quicquid sub terris est in apricum proferat ætas.*”

That which is buried in one age is dug up in another: thus the world goes on hiding and discovering; and thus the novelties of to-day become the antiquities of succeeding generations.

A list of Presents to the Society is subjoined, as usual.

ART. IX. *Sketches of the History and present State of the Russian Empire; of the Progress of Civilization from the Foundation of the Monarchy to the Accession of the House of Romanof, the present reigning Family; and particularly under the Sovereigns of that House; connected with political and personal Memoirs of the Imperial Court.* By the Rev. William Anderson. 8vo. pp. 451. 12s. Boards. Gale and Co. 1815.

THE importance attached to Russia, since the overthrow of Bonaparte's army in 1812, is the avowed reason for publishing the volume before us: the object of which, says the author, is to combine within a moderate compass a variety of particulars respecting that empire, which are at present scattered throughout several bulky productions. Mr. Anderson is thus contented to rest his claim to his reader's approbation on the merit of careful compilation and selection. He begins with a geographical account of this vast empire, and notices briefly the principal circumstances relative to its climate and the character of the inhabitants. Proceeding, in the next place, to the narrative part of his work, he confines himself to a rapid sketch of public events, up to the accession of the reigning family, which took place nearly two centuries ago in the person of Michael Romanof. Nothing, however, can be less interesting than the Russian annals, until the æra formed by the reign of the celebrated Peter; who was born in 1672, and, having lost his father while a child, came early into the management of public affairs. From this time forwards, Mr. Anderson's relation becomes more circumstantial, and records, with sufficient clearness, the wars and travels of Peter. The demise of that sovereign occurred in 1725; after which, Russian politics offer little else than a succession of intrigues, irregularities, and revolutions, till the assumption of the supreme power in 1762 by the well known Catherine II. The reign of this Princess occupies about a third part of the volume; and we select, as a favourable specimen of it, the passage relating her marriage with the Grand Duke Peter, whose end proved as tragical as that of his excentric descendant Paul in the present day:

* The Empress Elizabeth having nominated her nephew to be her heir, though she entirely neglected his education, resolved to provide him a spouse. Her choice fell upon the Princess of Anhalt Zerbst, a relation of the Grand Duke's. Sophia Augusta Frederica, the daughter of Christian Augustus, Prince of Anhalt Zerbst, and Elizabeth Princess of Holstein, was born at Stettin, May 2d, 1729. Her father, a Field-marshal in the Prussian service, and Governor of Stettin, devolved her education upon her mother, a woman of parts and beauty, who bestowed great care on the culture of her daughter's mind.

mind. In her childhood, Sophia discovered not a little spirit ; since at play, whatever it might be, she always acted the principal part, and taught her play-fellows theirs, with an air of authority. From Stettin, the principal place of her residence, she made frequent visits with her mother to Hamburg, Brunswick, and Berlin. At Hamburg, a M. von Brummer, chamberlain to the Bishop of Lubeck's relict, communicated to her the most instructive works of living authors, and at Brunswick she was instructed in the principles of Lutheranism by the court preacher, Dovè. Beautiful, amiable, and accomplished, her mother proposed, in the sixteenth year of her age, to convey her into Russia, a measure to which she was so reluctant, that she burst into tears, declaring she would rather marry a count in Germany than the Grand Duke.

'The Princess Sophia, however, accompanied her mother to Petersburg. A reciprocal attachment was soon observed between the Grand Duke and the young Princess. Having adopted the Greek religion, and changed her name into Catherine Alexievna, the young Princess was espoused to Peter, and the nuptials were celebrated with a magnificence becoming the heirs of a great empire.

'The Grand Duke and his consort lived for some time in apparent harmony. But their dispositions and habits involved the principles of distrust, indifference, and opposition, which events ripening into irreconcilable aversion, brought so many calamities upon the Grand Duke, and occasioned, at once, the crimes and honours of Catherine.

'Though Peter was not naturally void of understanding, he had received no instruction ; his person was uncouth, and his manners rude and vulgar ; while Catherine, naturally intelligent and carefully educated, added to great personal beauty, refinement of taste, and dignity of behaviour. She was ashamed of her consort, and in her presence he was ashamed of himself. As the Grand Duke's pretensions to the throne were superior to Elizabeth's, she grew jealous of him. Regarding him as a rival, she thought him too well informed, and kept him at a distance from all business. Some disinterested persons ventured to remonstrate with the Empress ; and, among others, a woman of her bed-chamber, named Johanna, had the courage to ask why she kept the Duke from the council. "What will become of him ?" said she, "if he is not taught what is necessary to rule the country ?" "Johanna," replied the Empress angrily, "do you know the way to Siberia ?" At Petersburg the Grand Duke was kept somewhat like a state prisoner. When the weather allowed, he retired to the palace at Oranienbaum, the gift of the Empress upon his marriage, where he amused himself in training his servants to military exercises. To preserve him from political intrigues, the Empress encouraged this military passion, and ordered soldiers to be draughted from different regiments, and to be quartered at Oranienbaum under his command.'

After having recapitulated the principal court-intrigues and military operations of the long reign of Catherine, Mr. Anderson passes in review the extravagancies of her son, and brings down the annals of her grandson, the present Alexander, to the flight

flight of the French army from Moscow, and the surrender of Paris. When so many transactions are compressed into a single volume, it is obvious that the narrative can be little more than an abstract; and the compiler would have had a better chance for popularity if he had allotted a larger space to his relation, but still better if he had bestowed greater pains on his composition. The part appropriated to the geographical description is avowedly borrowed from Tooke; while a great share of the remainder may be traced to Voltaire, Coxe, and the author of the life of Catherine II. The style bears, in many places, marks of the stiffness attendant on this plan of borrowing or imitating; and it is not until the close of the volume that Mr. Anderson begins to write with the fluency of an author who is familiar with his materials. We might notice, likewise, a number of minor inaccuracies in diction and typography, such as (p. 241.) 'delations,' for secret charges; 'inquietude,' (p. 243.) for disquietude; '42,000,000l.' (p. 370.) for 4,200,000l.; 'the Sezanne' (p. 433.) for the town of Sezanne, &c. With all these drawbacks, we are bound in critical justice to confine our eulogium to the admission that the book is devoid of superfluities or redundancies, and that the author discovers a capacity for making a much better work if he had followed a different plan,

ART. X. *Observations on the Expediency and Facility of a Copper Coinage of uniform Weight and a Standard Value*, according with the Mint-Prices of Gold and Silver-Bullion. By John Grenfell. 8vo. 1s. Asperne. 1814.

THE Bullion-question has already given us occasion to notice Mr. Grenfell in the character of a writer; and the judgment which we found it necessary to pass on him (Vol. lxiii. N. S. p. 174.) was worded in terms of very slender encomium, as far as they regarded either the composition or the arguments of his pamphlet. On the present subject he seems more at home in details, though he can scarcely be said to have made out a clear case with respect to the necessity or the utility of the measure which he recommends. He cites the example of France in adopting the *franc*, a silver coin, as the unit of which all other coins, whether gold, silver, or copper, are multiples or parts; and he proposes that the money-unit of Great Britain should be of copper, and of so small a value as one penny, or the two hundred and fortieth part of a pound sterling. He then proceeds to bring forwards different arguments against the apprehensions entertained by some persons, that a fluctuation in

the price of copper might occasion the melting of the proposed coin. Without disputing his reasoning in the main, we consider the pamphlet as chiefly useful in supplying a knowledge of several interesting particulars regarding the copper-trade. He tells us that

‘Copper-ore was neglected, or almost unknown, in Great Britain, till about the year 1700; but the Cornish mines now yield 80,000 tons of ore annually, the smelting of which consumes nearly 200,000 tons of coal, and the metal thus obtained, being on an average from 5 to 15 in the 100 parts, may be stated at 8000 tons of copper. Such is the quantity yearly added from Cornwall to the stock of a metal which is perishable only in a slight degree after many years use; the loss and waste being different, in proportion as it is either exposed to the fire in culinary and manufacturers’ vessels, to the action of the sea and wear and tear on the bottoms of ships, or as it is compounded with tin and zinc, to form mixed metals, as bell, pot, and brass; or as it is dispersed over the country in an extensive circulation of coin. With full allowances for loss, in all these instances, the old metal or shruff, constantly returning to the furnace, serves to increase the accumulation of copper in this and every other country.

‘To smelt one ton of copper-ore, two tons, and sometimes two tons and a half of coals, are requisite. Conceive then, what forests must be felled to supply the place of 200,000 tons of coal; what time would be lost, before, in the same extent of district, timber of proper growth could be renewed. In a country dependent on her forests for the smelting of copper-ore, twenty years might elapse before the miner and smelter could renew their operations on 80,000 tons of ore, which, remote from coals, would probably remain for ever hid and unknown in the rocks, where this stubborn mineral is deposited.’—

‘I have seen, scientifically arranged and pompously exhibited, at the *Conseil des Mines* at Paris, abundant specimens of the richest copper-ores any country can boast of, all collected from the interior departments of France: but I also saw that the specimens of coal, exhibited in the same cabinet, were from other departments remote from the ore, without any communication by the sea or rivers, and unconnected by roads or canals, for the conveyance of one mineral to the other. Although the display was *magnifique*, my amor patriæ was not alarmed by apprehension of any competition between the two countries in the copper-trade, knowing that all the mines in the 109 departments do not, and cannot be made to yield copper enough for *Monsieur’s Batterie de Cuisine*.’

‘The

‘In an official Report on the Copper-Trade of France, which was presented to the French Government in 1802, and of which I obtained a copy at Paris, for the late Mr. Williams, of Anglesea, the following passage shows the advantage England has over France in respect to our copper-mines.

‘The

‘ The Navy, Ordnance, and Mint, and all the manufactures of France, require foreign supplies of copper ; and should peace be restored, English copper would again have the preference throughout that extensive country.

‘ But it is not only in smelting ores, and the numerous branches of metallurgy, that Cornwall owes so much to the proximity of the Welch collieries, the working of the steam-engine, that perfection of human mechanism, depends on the same aid. All the excavations made in search after ore, and by its removal when found, serve as receptacles for water pouring to the lowest depths, from subterraneous springs, and draining from the surrounding hills : pits 150 and 200 fathoms below the surface, together with all their avenues and communications, must be kept dry by art. And here it is, with almost an incredible consumption of coal, that steam-engines, of dimensions and power unknown in any other part of the globe, expose to the eye and tools of the miners, ore inaccessible for ages to either, and even now no longer attainable, than while there is an adequate supply of fuel for the engine. This, with its pipes and pumps for lifting the water to the surface, where it is discharged in streams, sometimes capable of turning a mill, and the fuel daily consumed to supply the steam, are the greatest expence of working the most productive mines. When this expence exceeds the value of the ore raised, the miner resolves on abandoning his pursuit, not from any failure in quantity, nor from any deterioration of quality in the mineral, which is in some cases the richest and most abundant at the lowest level.

‘ It is thus the Welch collieries enable Cornwall to raise and work ores which add above a million sterling annually to our stock of national wealth ; and, as long as fuel can be obtained on reasonable terms, our copper-mines may be considered inexhaustible.’

Mr. G. adds to these details a table of the annual average of the prices of copper, from 1746 down to the last year. In 1746 and the succeeding years, fifteen-pence per pound was the ordinary price : but it fell about 1765 to thirteen-pence, and in 1778 to ten-pence. Since 1781, it has not been under eleven-pence, and on one occasion, viz. in the year 1805, it reached the unexampled value of one shilling and eleven-pence per pound. At present, it is at fourteen-pence, which is very nearly the average of the last sixty years. Taking sixteen-pence per pound, then, as the rate of value for the copper in coin, Mr. G. is of opinion that we should have a currency which would leave a considerable profit to Government for coinage, while it would not be likely to be diminished by melting.

‘ *Au commencement de la Révolution, la France exigeait plus de 6,000,000 lbs. par an. pour ses forces navales, son artillerie, et ses differens usages, en Cuivre rosette, &c. Ses mines ne fournissent que la vingtieme partie environ.*

‘ *Note sur les Cuivres employés et exploités en France.*’

Copper, he says truly, is not liable like gold and silver to be sent abroad on political emergencies: but we question whether, on the other hand, he makes sufficient allowance for the fluctuation in price which is inseparable from an article so much wanted for manufacturing purposes. We agree with him concerning the propriety of a new copper-coinage on the plan of uniformity, but we must confess ourselves too dull to comprehend the power of his reasoning respecting the utility of a money-unit. The *franc* in France fulfils this character chiefly as money of account, to the exclusion of the old plan of reckoning by livres, sols, and deniers. It does not, however, if we understand Mr. G. rightly, enter into his plan to new model our money of account: but much vagueness pervades his pamphlet; and in fact the only thing, except the copper-details, which seems clear in it, is his resistance to the Bullion-committee, towards whom (see his dedication, and p. 4.) he is by no means disposed to remit, in any degree, his former opposition.

ART. XI. *The Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain*, represented and illustrated in a Series of Views, Elevations, Plans, Sections, and Details, of various antient English Edifices: with historical and descriptive Accounts of each. By John Britton, F.S.A. 4 Vols. 4to. 21l. small Paper; 32l. large Ditto. Longman and Co., &c.

IN the xlviiiith Vol. of our New Series, (p. 255.) we announced the commencement of this very beautiful work, and gave some account of its objects, with our best commendations of the specimen contained in the first number. We have now the gratification of reporting the completion of it, and of stating that it has increased in beauty as it has proceeded, and is terminated with justly fulfilling all the engagements of the author.

This publication has probably rescued from oblivion many interesting and indeed valuable subjects, the smallness of which has procured them to be noticed only in ephemeral productions, which give little resemblance, and always suffer the elegancies of the original to escape. The present undertaking, instead of being confined to picturesque views of architectural remains of antiquity, was judiciously intended to include also as much of the detail of plans and sections as the size of the objects seemed to render desirable; and we thus obtain, in one mass, a collection of well selected remains of our antient architecture of the class contemplated, represented so as to gratify

gratify the eye of the amateur, and to furnish a variety of interesting examples for the professional artist. A concise but well written description, or historical account, accompanies the subjects, besides the numerous engravings with which they are illustrated, and which deserve uncommon praise.

Four volumes have now completed the work; and we wished to have stated distinctly the contents of each: but we find that this task exceeds our power, owing to the miscellaneous nature of the whole. It seems to have been the intention of the author, at his commencement, to have classed the subjects, or to have enabled the purchasers to class them according to their own inclinations; for which purpose, the parts forming the first volume are irregularly paged. We suppose, however, that Mr. Britton discovered the inconvenience of this procedure when he came to form his index, the attempt having been abandoned in the second and succeeding volumes. Each volume is accompanied by its separate index: but we are surprized that, in so miscellaneous a collection, it did not occur to the industrious author to subjoin, at the end of the last volume, a general alphabetical index of the articles contained in the whole: we say occur to him, because we are persuaded that the omission did not arise from a desire to save the labour; and the chronological index does not accomplish the purpose.

Vol. I. contains 61 prints, representing, among other objects, 17 antient crosses: the second contains 70 engravings, which furnish delineations of many of the older houses now in existence: the third includes also 70 plates, chiefly of antient churches; and the fourth is ornamented by 76 prints, several of which continue the representation of antient churches, together with a considerable collection of the remains of the most early castles. From these miscellaneous articles, we promiscuously transcribe a few specimens of the writer's historical details:

‘ ST. PETER’S CHURCH, NORTHAMPTON.

‘ The town of Northampton contains four parish churches, one of which has been illustrated and described in the first volume of this work: and another, still more curious in architectural details, and beautiful as a building, I shall now endeavour to develope. It is dedicated to St. Peter, and stands at the western extremity of the town, near the outer fortifications of the ancient castle, which is said to have been built by Simon de St. Liz in the time of William the Conqueror. From the contiguity of the former to the latter, it is probable that the church was connected with the castle, and was most likely erected by one of its Norman lords. But of this event there is no memorial preserved; and though the history of Northampton circumstantially details many public events relating to coun-

cils *, assemblies, sieges †, &c. : yet no notice is taken of the time when this building was erected, nor is the singularity of its architecture described. From the register of St. Andrew's priory, in this town, it appears that the rectory of St. Peter's was given to that house by Simon de St. Liz, and was confirmed to it, with Kingsthorpe and Upton, by Hugh Wells, Bishop of Lincoln, who was translated to that see A. D. 1209. †

‘ “ In the reign of Henry the Third, the right of patronage was recovered of the convent by the King, and continued for some time in the hands of the crown. The advowson was afterwards given by Edward III. in the third year of his reign, to the master, brethren, and sisters of St. Catherine's Hospital, near the Tower (of London), with whom it hath ever since continued. It was the privilege of this church that a person accused of any crime, intending to clear himself by canonical purgation, should do it here, and in no other place of the town, having first performed his vigil and prayers in the said church the evening before.” §

‘ The interior consists of a nave and two aisles of equal length, with a square tower at the west end. The nave is separated from the aisles by eight semicircular arches, supported on seven columns, three of which are composed of four semi columns, and the other four have only single shafts. The centre of the last is ornamented with a band of three mouldings, and all the capitals are decorated with sculptured scroll work, foliage, &c. The abacus of some is also ornamented. All the arches have zigzag indentations running round them ; and above these, on the north side, are six small windows.

‘ The exterior view represents the northern side of the building in perspective, and displays particularly two faces of the tower. This part of the structure, I believe, is unique in the singularity of its

‘ * In 1138 a council was held at Northampton, when the bishops, abbots, and barons of the realm were summoned by King Stephen ; and several promotions then made in the church and state. Bridges's *History of Northamptonshire*, Vol. i. p. 422. from Florence of Worcester.’

‘ † The early history of this town, like the general histories of the kingdom, is almost wholly devoted to the deplorable narration of wars and intestine tumults, as if it were the only province of history to record the savage and degrading propensities of man ; or as if the reader could derive no amusement or interest in any events but those immediately connected with warlike governments and military governors. If historians would cease to bestow that indiscriminate praise, which at present disgraces literature, on all commanders of armies, and those who only study the murdering science of war, it would greatly tend to check that unworthy ambition, which seeks for honour in the field of battle, or “ glorious renown in the massacre of thousands of our fellow-creatures.”’

‘ ‡ Willis's *Survey of Cathedrals*, Vol. ii. p. 50.’

‘ § Bridges's *History of Northamptonshire*, Vol. i. p. 445.’

buttresses,

buttresses, which consist of three half columns conjoined, gradually diminishing at each story. Over the western door is a blank arch, consisting of four flat mouldings, with a profusion of ornamental sculpture. Over this is a series of blank arches; and on the north side of the tower are two similar ranges. The exterior of the church above the aisles, on both sides, has a continued arcade; and over this are several grotesque heads, beneath a projecting string course.

‘ The grand arch, which divides the nave from the tower, is profusely ornamented with zig-zag dressings, and three of the columns have spiral and diamond-shaped mouldings.’

Of the Abbey Gate-house, St. Edmund's Bury, it is said,

‘ This elegant and venerable structure was the principal entrance to the famous and rich monastery of Bury *, and stood on the western side of the great court-yard immediately fronting the abbot's palace. It appears to have occupied the site of a much older edifice, which was destroyed by the town's people in a violent assault A.D. 1327 †. The present building was certainly erected a few

“ * The monastery of St. Edmond's Bury acquired and maintained, during a long succession of ages, a very distinguished and extended celebrity. In magnificent buildings, splendid decorations, and extensive possessions, it was equalled by few; and its immunities and privileges, both civil and ecclesiastical, rendered it superior to most of the conventual establishments in England.” Yates's Bury, Pref.’

‘ † The ecclesiastics of Bury Abbey, and the inhabitants of the town, were often involved in litigation and open hostilities. Mr. Yates has detailed many curious particulars respecting these civil broils. A writ of commission addressed to the King's Justices, A.D. 1327, first of Edward III., states that Richard Drayton, and many others, *vi et armis*, viz. *gladiis*, swords, — *arcubus*, bows, — *et sagittis*, arrows, — *aketonibus*, *hauberionibus*, halberts, — *et vaccinettis*, placis, — *lanciis*, spears, — *et gysarmis*, bill-hooks, lately assembled together, viz. on the Wednesday after the conversion of St. Paul (25th Jan.) did, in a tumultuous and riotous manner, besiege the Abbey; broke down the gates; destroyed the windows; beat and wounded the monks, with the servants and dependants of the monastery; broke, and destroyed, or carried away 20 chests, or coffers, 30 *forciaria*, 40 *carulas*, &c. 3 golden chalices, 40 silver chalices, 20 missals, 24 *portiforia*, 12 *Bibulas*, 20 Psalters, 10 journals, 7 *paria decretorum*, 10 *paria decretalium*, and many other books of science; 50 *capas chori*, caps or hoods, 60 *albas cum amittis*, 30 *cassibulas*, 30 tunicals, 40 *dalmaticulas*, 20 *frontali altarium*, with many other goods and chattels valued at 10,000l. 5000l. also in money, and 3000 florins, three charters of King Canute, four charters of Har. dicanute, one charter of Edward the Confessor, two of Henry I., two of Henry III., 10 papal bulls of Alexander the Fourth, two bulls of Innocent the Third, with several deeds, &c. This representation shews the riches and property of the Abbey, and the destructive effects of the contentions that frequently took place between the monks and their lay-neighbours. History, &c. of Bury, Part i. p. 129.’

years afterwards, upon "a plan combining utility with ornament, and elegance with defence. Its double entrance, portcullis, and brazen gates, presented a strong barrier to the violence of the turbulent townsmen; and its decorative excellence added much to the general splendour of the establishment *." Externally it had the properties of a castle; the walls being thick, and the gate-way particularly guarded; but the whole surface was adorned with niches, tracery, pediments, crockets, &c. in the most elaborate style of architecture of the age.

' The perspective view from the north-eastern angle, with the "elevation and details of part of the western front," display the design and general style of this very elegant façade, which I believe is unlike any other in England. In height it has two distinct and varied divisions, with an embattled parapet, in which there are oilet apertures, in form of a cross, for the discharge of arrows, &c. The buttresses or projections, at the angles, were crowned with turrets, or octagon towers, which rose fourteen feet above the parapet. In the front of the upper division, or story, is a series of niches with embattled pedestals, and also two circular compartments filled with tracery. A moulding in the form of a double intersecting triangle, is the principle feature of these circles. Between the upper and lower story is a friere of quaterfoil panels, and an embattled moulding running all round the building. In the lower story, the large arch of the gateway forms the chief feature. The opening is flanked by columns, between which are grooves for a portcullis; and is bounded at the top by a flattened arch springing directly from the inner capitals. A series of mouldings with deep hollows and projections also rest on the capitals, and, taking an ogee shape, rise to a point at the union of the first and second story. Between the two arches are three elegant niches with pedestals, canopies, bold finials, &c. In the spandrils are two other circular compartments with quaterfoil panels, the buttresses are adorned, in front, with niches, and at the sides with tracery in the form of windows.

' In the elevation of the north side is a door-way, in a projecting buttress, or appendage to the building. This was probably a place of convenience to the first floor, where there is a door-way through the wall. Part of the gate-house, as far as the second buttress from the west, projects beyond the wall which surrounded the monastery, and which was about eighteen feet in height. The interior design and arrangement of this building are worthy the attention of the architect and the antiquary. The ground plan, or floor, comprizes two apartments, with two passages and two stair-cases. Immediately within the large western gate-way is a sort of vestibule or porch, which was covered with an arched roof, and on each side the face of the wall is adorned with tracery, columns, and mouldings, in the form of windows. Beneath each of the trefoil arches are stone-shields, charged with armorial bearings †, and through the wall between the passages, and the vestibule, are small oilet apertures.

* History, &c. of Bury, Part ii. p. 2.'

† The arms are those of King Edward the Confessor, Thomas de Brotherton, Holland, Duke of Exeter, &c.'

Between this room and the large apartment, are a wall and an arched gate-way, which Mr. Yates describes to have been formerly provided with "brass gates, the hinges of which are still remaining." The inner apartment was arched over, and had several bold ribs springing from clustered pilaster columns. From this room a large arch-way opened to the court of the monastery; and what is rather singular, there is no appearance of door, gate, or other closure. Hence it appears that this room, though much adorned with architectural tracery, was constantly open to the weather, and was directly exposed to the abbot's inspection from his apartments in the monastery. Over it was a room, with a fire-place, and five windows, one of which, facing the east, is divided into three days by mullions. The height of the gate-house is about sixty-six feet; its extreme length from east to west sixty-four feet, and width about forty feet. The whole exterior is constructed with squared stones, and the sculptured foliage, figures, crockets, and tracery, are executed in a bold, sharp, and spirited style.'

The account of Warwick Castle is thus amply and well given :

' Among the number of castellated mansions which formerly abounded in England, very few have continued to be inhabited, and adapted to the domestic arrangements of modern times. Those of Windsor, Raby, Lumley, and Warwick, are therefore remarkable, for whilst they present the external features of feudal ages, and impress the spectator with sentiments of chivalry and romance, their apartments are at once spacious and elegant; their inmates are accomplished and polite; and the annexed gardens and pleasure-grounds are replete with every charm to fascinate the eye and please the senses. Formerly these places were intended to protect a rude and austere race of mail-clad-knights and their vassal dependants; now they are occupied by men of enlarged and enlightened minds, and by women of suavity, benevolence, and beauty. Instead of the art of war, and human butchery, as formerly studied within their walls, we now find the fine arts and literature cultivated and understood. The contrast is powerful and cheering; for now, instead of viewing the frowning battlements and dismal cells with dread and terror, we contemplate them as objects of grandeur and picturesque beauty. The amiable Jago, in his poem of "Edge Hill," thus pleasingly descants on the castle now under review :

" Now Warwick claims the song ; supremely fair
In this fair realm ; conspicuous raised to view,
On the firm rock, a beauteous eminence
For health and pleasure formed. Full to the south
A stately range of high embattled walls
And lofty towers, and precipices vast;
Its grandeur, worth, and ancient pomp confess."

' The present castle of Warwick is the workmanship of different and distant ages. In the oldest parts, we find some bold and almost impregnable specimens of Norman architecture, whilst a few parts display the tasteless additions of modern times. The foundation is laid

laid on a vast bed of rock, which rises precipitately from the northern bank of the river Avon. Impending over this truly classical stream is a long line of buildings, consisting of towers, state-apartments, and subterranean offices. At the south-eastern extremity is that majestic edifice, called Cæsar's Tower, and at the opposite end is a bold bay, or projecting turret. This front extends above 400 feet, and presents in its elevation a grand, picturesque, and stupendous mass. From the waters level to the basement-floor, the rock has been cut away in almost a perpendicular face, and is nearly of equal height to the whole superincumbent building. This mass of rock is diversified by hanging shrubs, fissures, and varied stains and mosses. Projecting from it, near the eastern end is a building appropriated to a flour-mill, from which a ledge of rocks extends across the river. This occasions a perpetual waterfall, of nearly the whole stream. The western side consists of a gallery, a tower-gateway to the inner court, and a flanking wall connecting this gateway with the keep-tower which occupies the summit of a very lofty conical mount. The embattled and terraced wall again returns from this keep round the northern side of the inner court; and about midway between the eastern and western ends it forms a semicircular sweep, and is flanked and guarded by two bastion-towers. The walls and small apertures of these are demonstrative of great strength and apparently are almost impregnable. From these the wall continues to the north-east angle, where is a lofty polygonal building called Guy's Tower, and here the wall returns at right angles to the grand entrance-tower-gateway. Hence it passes to the great tower at the south-eastern angle. The whole of the walls were surmounted by embrasures, loop-holes for arrows, a parapet, and a terrace-walk. The latter was conducted through the towers, up and down flights of steps, and to various merlons, and machicolations. Near the centre of the eastern wall is the *principal Entrance-Gateway*. This is a grand and very curious feature of castellated architecture, and is perhaps the most perfect specimen remaining in the country. A bridge, formerly a draw-bridge, is thrown across a wide fosse; on the inner bank of which is the chief portal, flanked by two octagonal towers, with small loop-holes in each face, holes over the arch, and a portcullis within. Further under the archway was a second barrier, formed by strong folding doors or gates. About forty feet further was a second portcullis, and still within that was another pair of doors or gates, filling up a large arch. This passage, nearly ninety feet long, opens to the inner ballium or court by a lofty arch, flanked by octagonal towers, which rise to a considerable height, and contains several stories or floors, formerly used for the residence of porters and domestics. Other rooms, stair-cases, and galleries, were distributed in various parts about this entrance. Near the doors and portcullisses, were apertures in the vaulted roof for annoying assailants; and under the arched way were several niches for warders, and door-ways to stairs, to rooms, and to the walls. After passing through this long, gloomy, and strongly guarded arch-way, we come to the inner ballium surrounded by the principal dwelling apartments to the south; the lofty keep-tower and mount, with a tower gate-way to the west; a high embattled

embattled wall, with bastion-towers to the north; and the gate-way-tower, with Guy's tower, Cæsar's tower, and a lofty connecting wall to the east. The two latter towers are very imposing objects, and interesting examples of architectural design. *Cæsar's tower* forms a very irregular figure in plan, and is surmounted by a bold machicolated parapet, and a clustered turret. It rises about 100 feet from the level of the court-yard. This tower, as well as Guy's, has two winding stair-cases, communicating to the different floors, to the parapets of the walls, and to the inner court. The annexed print shews it from the river, near the remains of a destroyed bridge; in this print it is seen, that the tower rises, in a grand and imposing manner, from a rocky base, which constitutes about one half of the elevation from the water's level. Its apex may therefore be considered as almost 200 feet above the water, and nearly the height of the column called the *London Monument*. This rock is hollowed out, where the lowest window appears, and constitutes a dismal cell or prison beneath the tower. Near the top is a spacious reservoir for water, to supply any, or all, of the apartments of the castle.

' *Guy's tower*, having twelve sides, rises 106 feet above its base, is 38 feet in diameter, and is divided into five stories, each of which is separated from the others by arched floors. The ground, with the third and fourth stories, are each occupied by one oblong apartment, about 23 feet by 14—6, and by two small lateral rooms in the walls. Each of the larger rooms has a fire-place, and the smaller appear to have been appropriated to sleeping rooms. The basement-story has only one window opening to the inner court, with a door-way to the same. The next floor is occupied by an archive room, which must always have been a strong and secure place; as the walls are eight feet in thickness, and are without windows or openings. In the third floor, are four small windows or apertures from the large room, and three others from the smaller apartment to the S. E. also two more to the S. W. These loop-holes are narrow, and curiously disposed to command eight of the exterior sides of the tower. The fourth, or next story, is similarly disposed; but the fifth, or upper floor, is very unlike any of the others. This is occupied by a sexangular room, with six windows of nearly a square shape, and much larger size than any in the lower stories. A circular or newel stair-case, is formed in the pier at the south-east-angle, to all the rooms and to the roof; and another corresponding stair-case leads from the roof to the terraced wall of the inner court. The whole summit of this tower is covered with lead, and surrounded by a machicolated parapet, with embrasures and oilets.

' The domestic, or residentiary part of the castle, may be said to be divided into three chief or principal floors, in height, and each of them is again subdivided into several apartments. Many of these, however, are of modern formation and character. In the basement-floor, and in some of the towers, we recognise the genuine remains of castellated architecture, in which solidity of walls, small windows, and gloomy rooms, are the leading features. Without detaining the reader longer by description, I will close the present essay with a few historical facts relating to the castle.

' Dugdale,

‘ Dugdale, and most subsequent topographers, have described Warwick Castle, as either of British or of Roman origin, and as the site of the *Presidium* of the Roman conquerors. On this point I have the authority of a gentleman much better versed in Anglo-Roman antiquities than either Dugdale or Camden, (the Bishop of Cloyne,) who correctly remarks, that Warwick is not in the course of any great Roman road; that *Presidium* is placed in the *Notitia* between York and Doncaster; that the place is not mentioned in Bertram’s own copy of Richard of Cirencester, although it is in the copy which that gentleman sent to Dr. Stukeley: and “the truth seems to me,” observes this intelligent antiquary, “that Warwick, from its fine situation on the Avon, was probably a Roman station, especially as Nennius mentions Caer-Guarioc among his British cities, all which I believe were Roman ones: but it could not be *Presidium*, unless there were two stations of that name in Britain, as there certainly were two Meriolanums, and three Derventios.” The discovery of some Roman inscriptions, within the area of the castle, has been urged, not only as an argument, but as a proof that the Romans occupied this spot. But these inscriptions were certainly not executed in England, and it is not likely that the Roman officers sent to Italy for monumental tablets. “In short,” continues the Bishop, “Warwick has no Roman remains whatever: no fragments of walls, nor urns, bricks, or tessellated pavements.” Commencing, therefore, with something like authority,—the Domesday-Book,—we find that record assigning a strong hold at this place to the King; who employed Turkill as the governor, and directed him to enlarge and fortify it. To make room for this enlargement, four houses belonging to the monks of Coventry were removed. Soon afterwards the Norman monarch appointed Henry de Newburgh as governor, and created him Earl of Warwick. At the latter end of King Stephen’s reign, it was occupied by that monarch’s soldiers; for Gundred, Countess of Warwick, turned these out to make room for Henry, Duke of Normandy, afterwards crowned as King Henry II. In the 19th of this reign, the sheriff accounted for vii. xiiis. ivd. for 20 quarters of bread-corn; xxs. for 20 quarters of malt; cs. for 4 beefs salted; xxxs. for 90 cheeses; and xxs. for salt, then laid up in the castle. The next year xxxl. xs. viiid. were paid to soldiers in garrison here, and vii. viiis. xid. for repairs. During the reign of Henry III. this castle appears to have been a place of great importance and strength; for that monarch demanded security of Margery, sister and heir of Thomas, Earl of Warwick, against marrying any person without the King’s consent. The governor of Kenilworth-castle afterwards surprized and took possession of this of Warwick, demolished some of its walls, and took the Earl and his Countess prisoners. The injury then done to the fortress was not repaired till the reign of Edward III. when Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, “erected anew the outer wall of the castle, with divers towers;” but the great tower, called Guy’s, was built by Thomas, son and heir to the above Earl, in 1394, and cost 395l. 5s. 2d. This nobleman also built the body of the collegiate church in Warwick, and at his death bequeathed the sword and coat of mail, said

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to have belonged to the chivalrous Guy, Earl of Warwick, to his son Richard, the founder of the Beauchamp chapel. After this time the castle was successively occupied and governed by John de Clinton, Thomas Holland, Earl of Kent, George Plantagenet, Duke of Clarence, and Earl of Warwick, who made some alterations in the buildings, and proposed to make more, but was attainted of high treason by his brother, King Edward IV., who ordered him to be drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine. The estate of Warwick, with no less than 114 lordships, were now made over to the avaricious King Henry VII. who caused the lawful heir to be beheaded on Tower-hill. King Edward VI. in the first year of his reign, granted the title of Earl of Warwick, with the castle, &c. to John Dudley, who was afterwards beheaded by order of Queen Mary. The castle is described as being in a very ruinous condition in the second year of King James I. when it was granted to Sir Fulke Grevile, who expended "upwards of 20,000*l.* in repairing and adorning the same for a family-seat." Dugdale observes that he made it "not only a place of great strength, but extraordinary delight, and the most princely seat within the midland parts of England." He was created Baron Brooke, and, according to his monumental inscription, was "Servant to Queen Elizabeth, counsellor to King James, and friend to Sir Philip Sidney." He was murdered by his own servant at Brooke-house in Holborn, London, and was succeeded by Robert Lord Brooke, at the age of 21, who was a staunch and powerful champion in behalf of the parliament and people, against the tyrannous conduct of Charles I. Warwick Castle was now made a garrison for the proprietor and his partizans. It was besieged on August 7. 1642, by the Earl of Northampton, who continued his operations against it till the 23d of the same month. At this time it was defended by Sir Edward Peito, with a very small force, having only two pieces of small cannon, and some muskets within the walls. Soon afterwards, (Oct. 22.) was fought the noted battle of *Edge-hill*, the subject of an interesting poem by Jago. Lord Brooke was afterwards killed by a musket-shot, at Lichfield. His son Robert, in more peaceable times, fitted up "the state apartments at Warwick Castle at a considerable expence," and made other improvements here. By the late Earl of Warwick, some other additions and alterations were effected: and by the present nobleman, still greater changes have been made.'

A preface accompanies the fourth volume, announcing the views of the author respecting other undertakings:

'If in the works,' he observes 'already published, I have not succeeded to the extent of my wishes, and to the satisfaction of the best informed antiquaries, I am anxious to prosecute my labours till that end be accomplished. Thus impelled, it is my determination to employ all my experience and knowledge, with encreasing love for the subject, in "The Cathedral Antiquities," which, indeed, may strictly and properly be considered as a continuation or New Series of the Architectural Antiquities.

'Both these works are expressly devoted to the same subject, and will be jointly illustrative of the arts, customs, and religious and civil
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peculiarities of our ancestors in their various stages of progressive civilization and refinement. The *Architectural Antiquities* constitute now, however, a complete and regular work; and each cathedral will also form a specific volume.'

As Mr. Britton farther remarks in the same preface that 'the accounts and illustrations of castellated architecture, in the present volume, have not been so ample as he intended, nor have all the subjects been noticed, that have been announced,' we regret that this work is not to be continued in the manner in which it has hitherto proceeded; for we do not scruple to repeat that it is a valuable as well as a pleasing and sumptuous production, and will become more so by being made a complete repository of antiquities of that class which have not been deemed of sufficient consequence to call for a separate publication of each. The representations are sufficiently detailed, and the accounts may be deemed satisfactory for this species of objects; of which many curious examples still remain to excite attention. We rather doubt, however, the policy of the author's intention to publish "The Cathedral Antiquities" as a continuation of the present design. The labour, the knowledge, and the abilities which suffice for matters of this stamp, will not be deemed satisfactory on subjects of so much consequence as cathedrals; in the illustration of which, though not much difficulty will occur in producing what may be termed the picturesque part, the proposer must also undertake to give to his work all that architectural science, which is so necessary in describing the essential parts in the construction of these wonderful fabrics. As to the historical department, also, does Mr. Britton covenant to imbue it with that information, to obtain which the greater part of a man's life on the spot has scarcely been deemed sufficient, in searching the archives? If only itinerant investigations accompany the work, it cannot be rendered such as the subject requires; and disappointment will be the result.

ART. XII. *Hindu Infanticide*. An Account of the Measures adopted for suppressing the Practice of the systematic Murder by their Parents of female Infants; with incidental Remarks on other Customs peculiar to the Natives of India. Edited, with Notes and Illustrations, by Edward Moor, F.R.S. Author of the *Hindu Pantheon*. 4to. pp. 339. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson and Co.

THIS publication consists principally of documents originating with the servants of the Company, employed in high official stations, in the parts of India in which infanticide was under-

understood most to prevail. The attention of the British government in India was first drawn to the subject by a functionary of great and acknowledged merit, Mr. Jonathan Duncan, on whose prudence and judgment the government of Bombay for many years reposed. So long ago as the year 1789, when resident at Benares, that gentleman discovered a tribe of Hindus, inhabiting a district lying near the boundaries of the British and the Oude dominions, called Raj-koomars; among whom it was not customary to rear any of their female children, but to put them to death, by various expedients, immediately after their birth. Of the six chapters into which this work is divided, the first and second consist of a summary, by Mr. Duncan, of the measures which he adopted, first at Benares, for the suppression of female infanticide among the Raj-koomar tribe and others in that vicinity; and afterward at Bombay, for its abolition among the Raj-put tribes in Guzerat and the adjoining parts of India. The documents here brought forwards, of which the object is to throw on the extent and modes as well as the origin of this practice all the light which the researches of the writers had been able to collect, must be regarded as adding a contribution of some value to the materials which we already possessed, illustrative of the manners and character of the Hindus, and of the state of society at which they had arrived.

It would appear that the practice is mostly if not entirely confined to certain tribes, which regard themselves as belonging to the military caste, and are descendants, more or less pure, of the Chatriyas, the second in rank to the Brahmins. Of the origin of so very strange a custom, those who have any acquaintance with the state of the human mind among the Hindus will not expect that from them any thing but a fabulous account should be received. In each place, indeed, the inquirer is treated with a legendary story; how some king was led to destroy his daughter, or some Brahmin chose to prescribe the bloody deed. These tales, however, generally concur in representing the great difficulty of procuring husbands of suitable rank, as the impelling motive. Yet this cannot be very easily conceived; because, how great soever may be the imaginary rank of the females of any tribe, the males would scarcely fail to be equal in dignity as well as numbers. If the males happened to acquire a taste for wives drawn from a different tribe, then indeed it is possible to imagine that a Hindu father, with whom it is equally a religious crime to leave his daughter unmarried and to unite her to a husband of a caste inferior to her own, might be driven to the only remaining expedient, of putting an end to her life; which in his creed would very likely be a crime inferior to either of the

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the other two : — but how any such taste for strange wives should have become general, it is not easy to suppose.

In some of the most savage states of human nature, the women are treated with so much cruelty by the men, that mothers, it seems, from a foresight of the misery to which their daughters would be subjected, deem it not unfrequently the best service which they can render to their female offspring, to cut them off from the sufferings of a prolonged existence : but in Hindustan, it is to the men, more peculiarly, that the sacrifice of female life is to be ascribed. The priests, indeed, appear to have been greatly instrumental in the origin of the business : but their motive, also, it is very difficult to divine. — On the other hand, it is easy to explain that infanticide which extends to children of all descriptions. Wherever population increases faster than subsistence, — and that, according to Mr. Malthus, is the habitual state of mankind in every country, and in every age, — a motive to infanticide always exists ; which, unless religion stood opposed to the practice, would perhaps every where have considerable effect. When more mouths are produced than food can be found to sustain, the whole of the most numerous class is reduced to a deplorable state of poverty, and a portion of them must annually die of want. In this case, if religion or laws did not forbid, the inability of rearing children, and the misery with which it is attended, would often suggest the expedient of arresting life in the birth ; would thus keep down the progress of population to the quantity of food ; and would either wholly or in part prevent that grand source of the evils with which human nature is pressed, the existence of a greater number of persons than food can be obtained to supply.

In addition to the materials emanating from the benevolent pen of Mr. Duncan, both when resident at Benares and when governor of Bombay, we are in the third chapter presented with a long report from Lieutenant-Colonel Alexander Walker, dated in March 1808, when he was political resident in Guzerat, on the state of infanticide in that part of India, and on the measures which through him had been pursued for its suppression. — The effect of education is such, that in Europe the death of an infant, caused by voluntary means, excites a degree of horror which is greater perhaps than almost any other species of homicide produces. Yet it is certain that no other is attended with so little suffering to the victim, who is absolutely without foresight, has no attachment to life, and may expire almost without a pang. It is found accordingly, that nations, by no means barbarous, can easily reconcile themselves to the practice. Not so the great body of our countrymen ! ; and they who could from year to year, almost from age to age, stand the cold spec-
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tators of the unparalleled misery (including innumerable deaths) which was inflicted on whole nations by such wretched tyrants as the nabobs of the Carnatic and Oude, (whom the English supported and enabled to exercise their accursed sway,) were shocked beyond measure to hear of infanticide, and imagined that a nobler display of humanity could not be made than by taking the most efficient and expeditious measures for its suppression. Assuredly, we applaud every instance which comes within our view of an interest taken by our countrymen in the welfare of the people in India, over whom their influence so widely extends. We could wish, indeed, that the impulse were always proportioned to the utility of the object; that human suffering and human happiness were the criterion of evil and good; and that the conduct of men who intend well were guided by rules drawn from the reality, rather than the affectation, of humanity. When we thus speak, some explanation, however, may perhaps be necessary. We certainly do not mean that humanity was affected by those of our meritorious countrymen, who, in the case of Hindu infanticide, exerted themselves to abolish that which they considered as a tremendous evil:—but we mean to say that a great many false maxims of morality are current in the world; and that, among the causes of such erroneous notions, the *affectation* of humanity, very remote from its reality, is one. It is also clear that, when these false maxims are established, they exert a powerful influence over the minds of those whose humanity is the most sincere; leading to many errors in the selection of its objects, or to a choice of the less in preference to the more important; and tending to keep the sum of human happiness at a lower and the sum of human misery at a higher level than each would otherwise obtain. Whenever, in fairly estimating happiness and misery, we measure the degree of approbation or disapprobation which we bestow on the causes of each, the pernicious modes of *rearing* children will not shock us less than the pernicious modes of preventing their existence; and every crime that can be named will be deemed inferior to the existence of a bad government, which not only destroys human life on the most unlimited scale, but augments, beyond all other causes put together, the amount of human misery.

Besides the researches which these laudable servants of the Company made into the origin and circumstances of so extraordinary a practice as the destruction of the female children of a community, compelling the males to have recourse to other communities for wives, the documents before us give an account of the steps which have been adopted by the English for the suppression of this practice within the sphere of their in-

fluence; and they are measures of that peculiar description on which the highest praise ought always to be bestowed. The object was pursued through the path of instruction and persuasion; — efforts being directed to make the people see that the reasons on which they founded the practice were contemptible, and to give an ascendancy to the motives on which the preservation of the human offspring usually rests. The success has been much more complete than, among a people whose attachment to their customs is so bigoted and inveterate, any person could have foreseen; whole tribes having been induced to renounce infanticide, and to enter into solemn and express engagements for that purpose. — Besides the documents furnished by the functionaries in question, a large body of notes is added by Mr. Moor, the editor of the work, illustrative of the various points of Hindu manners and history; to which allusion was made in the statements, and respecting which the reader might be supposed to stand in need of information.

An objectionable feature of this volume is the expensiveness of its form, which the materials seemed by no means to require. The class of readers whom it is calculated to interest consists of those philosophical men who are deeply engaged in the study of human nature, and anxious to explore any unusual phenomenon which it exhibits; or those individuals who have a taste for Indian antiquities, generally contracted during a residence in the East, and whose curiosity is naturally excited by any strange practice which may be found to prevail. Readers of this description need not to be allured by the beauties of the printing and paper-making arts; and it is hard to make them pay for luxuries which they do not covet, or to deprive them of knowledge which they seek.

ART. XIII. *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, published by the Medical and Chirurgical Society of London. Vol. IV. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT is observed in the advertisement prefixed to this volume, that 'a year has scarcely elapsed since the third volume of the Society's Transactions made its appearance;* and we are now called to notice a fourth, which, as the Society justly hope, may be pronounced equal not only in size but in value to those that have preceded it. We shall, as on former occasions, give a brief account of its contents.

* See Rev. for July, 1814.

The first paper is written by Mr. Fergusson, and relates to '*the Venereal Disease in Portugal.*' During his situation as Inspector-general of Portuguese Military Hospitals, Mr. F. had an opportunity of contrasting the remarkable difference between the effects of syphilis on the natives and the British: the topical symptoms produced in the latter being as unusually violent as those in the former were peculiarly mild; so that, while the most melancholy consequences ensued in the one case, in the other the disease was 'curable for the most part by topical treatment alone,' and seemed 'capable of wearing itself out without the use of any adequate mercurial remedy.' The facts are very curious, and unexpected; yet the circumstances under which they are related incline us to give credit to them. — In the second communication, Dr. Percival of Dublin states the history of '*a Case of Paralysis of the Face, succeeded by certain nervous Diseases:*' in which the affection was removed by an assiduous administration of purgative remedies. — We have next '*a remarkable Instance of Spasmodic Affection of the Tongue and Mouth successfully treated,*' by Mr. Mitchell of Kington, Herefordshire. After many remedies had been given without effect, the cure was accomplished by removing a number of decayed stumps of teeth. — Dr. Chisolme relates '*the beneficial Effects of Mercury in some Affections of the Brain,*' which seemed to partake of the nature of hysteria or catalepsy, accompanied by a degree of mania.

In Number v., Dr. Bostock furnishes a chemical '*Analysis of the Bones of the Spine, in a Case of Mollities Ossium,*' from which he draws the following conclusion respecting the quantity of earthy salts in the diseased bone, compared with that which is usually found in a sound one: 'Making use of the best data which we possess, we may conclude that human bones in their natural state contain considerably more than half their weight of earthy matter, whereas the diseased bone in question contained in one part one-fifth only, and in another one-eighth of its weight.' — Mr. Martin, of Reigate, next gives an account of '*the good Effects of Arsenic in Chorea;*' and Mr. Denmark, of Haslar Hospital, details the history of a train of symptoms resembling *Tic Douleureux*, produced by a wound in the radial nerve; which could be relieved only by the amputation of the arm.

No. viii. is a second paper from Dr. Bostock, of considerable length, '*on the Nature and Analysis of Animal Fluids;*' in which, although he adds some new facts on this subject, he principally directs his attention to the arrangement and classification of those that had been previously discovered. He has disposed into the form of a table the results of an examination

which he has made of thirty or more fluids, obtained from different parts of the body ; and he subjoins some general directions for the examination of this species of substances, with observations on their nature and connection with each other, so as to form a good synoptical view of the present state of our knowlege on this branch of animal chemistry.

The paper which follows by the President, Sir Gilbert Blane, is intituled, ‘ *Observations on the comparative Prevalence, Mortality, and Treatment of different Diseases ; illustrated by Abstracts of Cases which occurred to the Author at St. Thomas’s Hospital, and in his private Practice, embracing a Period of twenty Years.*’ This abstract of the long and ample experience of so distinguished a practitioner is extremely valuable and useful, and affords the model of a method of concentrating medical knowlege, which we hope will be generally adopted. Sir Gilbert arranges diseases under four heads ; 1st, those which have appeared in this country and afterward disappeared, such as the leprosy and sweating sickness ; 2dly, those which have arisen but have not disappeared ; 3dly, those which have occasionally raged with peculiar violence, and, after having abated for some time, have again become prevalent ; and lastly, those that are more common in our times than they were in former ages. With respect to diseases which depend on specific contagion, constituting the second class, and those which belong to the third class, such as plague, dysentery, typhus, scurvy, rickets, &c. it may be observed in general that their violence is much diminished, in consequence partly of improvements in the medical art, and partly of greater attention to cleanliness in the modern modes of life ; while, on the contrary, the increased luxury of the present times, and some circumstances connected with trades and manufactures, have been favourable to the prevalence of scarlet fever, consumption, gout, dropsy, palsy, apoplexy, lunacy, and generally all those diseases of which the brain and nerves are the seat. The conclusion which Sir G. Blane draws from this comparative view is that ‘ the present generation may congratulate itself on its improved condition with regard to those great sources of human misery, epidemic and endemic disorders.’ We have also some very interesting observations on the remote causes of all predominant disorders that may be referred to three general heads, ‘ the vitiated exhalations and secretions of the living human body, the noxious exhalations of the earth, and depraved habits of life.’ It is stated that the only other general causes influencing health are the climate, and the fluctuation of the seasons ; and on this subject Sir Gilbert makes the following remarks :

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‘ There are five circumstances belonging to the seasons of this climate which affect health. 1st, It is found that, in a severe winter, a much greater number of aged people die, also of those who labour under chronic affections of the lungs, palsy, and dropsy, and of young children. 2dly, There is a greater tendency to pulmonic inflammation in the spring-months, in proportion to the prevalence of the north-east wind periodical at this season. 3dly, There is greater tendency to *cholera morbus* in the end of summer and beginning of autumn, and this in proportion to the heat of the preceding summer. 4thly, There is a greater tendency to bowel-complaints in general during all the autumn months. 5thly, The strength of the wind has an influence on health.’

A subsequent part of the essay contains some good observations on the result of modern practice contrasted with that of the antients, and on the comparative prevalence of different diseases in the higher and the lower classes of society : but for these, and a great variety of other matter, we must refer to the paper itself.

Mr. Wardrop’s communication on ‘ *the Effects of evacuating the aqueous Humour in Inflammation of the Eyes, and in some Diseases of the Cornea,*’ affords an useful addition to our practical knowlege of the treatment of this important organ. Some years ago, he proposed the adoption of this practice in certain diseases of the eyes, and he has now observed its effects in so many instances that he can speak with confidence on its success. The great relief, which is experienced, is supposed to depend on the removal of the state of tension which exists in inflammation, similar to that which takes place in deeply seated affections of the periosteum, in whitloe, and in the gums before dentition. He observes that

‘ The pain, however, produced by the operation, particularly if it be done with care and attention, soon subsides; and the good effects, which quickly succeed, sufficiently compensate for any uneasiness it may have occasioned. Wounds, too, of the cornea, heal with uncommon rapidity ; and I have not, in a single instance where the operation has been performed, been able to detect the smallest vestige of an incision ; nor has it ever occurred, so far as I know, that any visible cicatrix remained, even in those cases in which the operation had been performed when the cornea was in a previous state of ulceration.’

The author discusses in separate sections the particular description of cases which may be relieved by the evacuation of the aqueous humour, the mode of performing the operation, and its effect in various diseases of the eye ; concluding with a detail of seventeen cases in which he had recourse to it.

After the account of a ‘ *Case of Disease in the Brain, produced by external Violence,*’ related by Dr. Hutchinson of Deal, and

one of '*premature Puberty*,' (in a female aged four years and a half,) by Mr. Astley Cooper, we arrive at a long, valuable, and interesting pathological disquisition, by Mr. Brodie, '*on the Diseases of the Joints*.' Having remarked how much confusion and uncertainty prevail in the nomenclature usually employed on this subject, Mr. B. proceeds to form a classification of these affections, according to the nature of the disease or the texture of the parts primarily deranged. The paper is divided into sections, under each of which are placed appropriate cases that have fallen under Mr. Brodie's notice; viz. inflammation of the synovial membrane, ulceration of ditto, morbid state of structure of ditto, ulceration of the cartilages of the joints, and scrofulous affections of the joints. These diseases he designates as being of most frequent occurrence; and he afterward notices four others which are less common; viz. inflammation at the extremity of a bone, when matter forms and bursts into a joint; the death of the head of a bone, and the consequent destruction of the joint; the loose cartilaginous bodies that are occasionally in joints; and the effects of gout on the joints. — We do not hesitate to characterize this paper as possessing great excellence and utility, and calculated to improve both our pathology and our practice.

Mr. Travers offers some valuable '*Observations on the Cataract*;' endeavouring to determine which of the operations that have been proposed is the best adapted for the several varieties of the disease. Of the four kinds of cataract, the fluid, the flocculent, the caseous, and the compact, he thinks that the operation of the late Mr. Saunders is most proper to be employed in the first and second, while the operations of couching or extracting are best suited to the last two. Mr. Saunders's mode is objectionable in the caseous and the compact cataracts, on account of the degree of force which is necessary to break them down with the needle, and the danger which is incurred of dislocating the lens.

We now come to a '*Case of contracted Wrist, successfully treated*,' by Mr. Hodgson of Lewes; an interesting but fatal '*Case of Cynanche Laryngea*,' by Dr. Percival of Dublin, in which the observations of Dr. Farre in the last volume of these Transactions are well illustrated; the '*History of a diseased metacarpal Bone, removed by an Operation*,' by Mr. Wardrop; an account of '*a double encysted Tumour*' in the orbit of the eye, containing a tooth, by Mr. Barnes of Exeter; two cases of '*strangulated femoral Hernia*,' by Mr. Chevalier, attended with some unusual circumstances; and a '*Case of Extravasation of Bile into the Cavity of the Abdomen*,' by Mr. Fryer of Stamford. The circumstances noticed by Mr. Chevalier are that, in the first

first case, on dividing the integuments over the tumour, a cluster of indurated glands presented itself, below which was lodged the protruded intestine ; and, in the second, 'the sac containing the intestine was included within another sac, into which it had descended, so as completely to fill up the aperture, to which it firmly adhered.'

Mr. Charles Bell gives a minute account of '*the Muscularity of the Uterus*,' and particularly describes some portions of its muscular structure which appear not to have been hitherto much observed. He concludes with remarks on the natural action of the uterus, producing rupture, as connected with the Cæsarean section and with flooding. This essay is followed by '*some Observations on the Use of Opium in Uterine Hemorrhage*,' by Mr. Stewart ; and then occurs a very interesting paper by Dr. Yelloly, '*on the vascular Appearance of the human Stomach, which is frequently mistaken for Inflammation of that Organ*.' The author adduces several important considerations in refutation of Mr. Hunter's doctrine, that the stomach is sometimes digested after death by its own gastric juice ; and he describes with minuteness an appearance of fulness in the vessels of the stomach, which has generally been regarded as a proof of the inflammation of the organ, but which happened under circumstances in which this state could scarcely be supposed to have taken place. The paper is altogether valuable, and particularly with a view to the medical opinions that must be given in cases in which the stomach is examined after death, for the purpose of ascertaining the effects of poison. — An important anatomical communication succeeds, from Mr. Astley Cooper, on '*the Anastomosis of the Arteries at the Groin* ;' and the volume concludes with some '*Observations on the Ligature of Arteries, and the Causes of secondary Hemorrhage*,' with the suggestion of a new method of employing the ligature in cases of aneurysm, by Mr. Travers. In this paper, the author proceeds on the principle of Jones, that an artery is obliterated by the adhesion of its internal coat, in consequence of inflammation ; and, from this view of the subject, he inquires what are the best methods of accomplishing this adhesion, by what kind of ligature it is produced, and what is the most effectual mode of applying it. The conclusion is that a simple ligature, continued only for a limited space of time, is the most complete security against hæmorrhage.

We need scarcely point out to our readers the value of the materials of which this volume consists ; since it must be sufficiently apparent even from our very brief sketch of their contents. It will perhaps not be going too far to assert, that this is not merely the best portion of the *Medico-Chirurgical Trans-*

actions that has yet appeared, but that it is at least equal to any volume of the transactions of any society of a similar nature.

ART. XIV. *An Essay on certain Points of Resemblance between the Antient and Modern Greeks.* By the Hon. Fred. Sylv. North Douglas, Student of Christ Church, Oxon. 8vo. pp. 198. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

THIS elegantly written volume, which is preceded by a dedication equally manly and complimentary to the Dean of Christ Church, may certainly claim an honourable place among the numerous works on Modern Greece that distinguish our age and nation. It is indeed one of the most pleasing and satisfactory little books which we have read for a long period. The parallel between the antient and the modern inhabitants of Greece is maintained throughout with much spirit and accuracy; and we consider the work as a sort of necessary supplement to the larger and more expensive publications on the same subject. The remarks subjoined to the poems of Lord Byron, the ample and meritorious production of Mr. Hobhouse, and the popular account of Dr. Clarke, with several other performances either noticed or to be noticed in the course of our critical labours, have contributed in our own times to throw a light on that interesting country, with which the knowledge of our predecessors was comparative darkness. This is highly creditable to England; and it will ever be remembered to her honour, that, in the midst of almost universal war and tumult, some of her learned and enterprising sons were strenuously cultivating the fairest arts of peace, and adorning and instructing their native land by their researches in the noblest region of classical antiquity.

Among such laudable inquirers into the present state of Greece, not one seems to have set out with a more genuine spirit of admiration for the scene of his travels than Mr. Douglas. We shall not do him justice if we omit the whole of his Introduction to the Essay; although he appears to be so little fond of making himself the hero of his story, that this prefatory sketch is very rapid and short, and merely sufficient to acquaint the reader with the opportunities which the traveller enjoyed in forming his observations. The ensuing passage will give some insight into that point; and it will at the same time, we think, prepossess the reader in favour of the person with whom he is to wander through such magic regions.

‘ In the summer of 1810 I left England, and having visited Spain, Portugal, Malta, and Sicily, arrived at Zante in April 1811. The remembrance of the first Greek sentence I heard upon landing in that beautiful

beautiful island will never be effaced. I doubt whether the *Θάλασσα* ! of Xenophon's soldiers was productive of more lively sensations than those I experienced at the first sight of the Morea. Ithaca and Santa Maura * were the only other Ionian islands at which I touched; islands which, though scarcely considered as part of ancient Greece, preserve more of the Grecian manners and character than much of the region more properly included in that denomination. Under the protection of our government they will undoubtedly thrive, though at the time when I visited them, their commerce, by which they exclusively flourish, had not yet gained those advantages which the reception of the British flag had led them to expect.

‘ From Prevesa, the port of the great Pacha of Albania, we proceeded to his capital †, and by an unprecedented favour accorded to the reputation of the gentleman I accompanied, the Honourable Frederic North, (whom I afterwards left on my departure from Constantinople for Smyrna, but rejoined at my second visit to Athens,) we were often admitted to the society, and once to the table of that singular personage. ‡

‘ Upon quitting Joannina, we passed through the country of which the scenery has been immortalized by Lord Byron §, to the foot of

‘ * The ancient Leucadia.’

‘ † Joannina.’

‘ ‡ Foreign as it may appear to the subject of which I am particularly treating, I trust I shall be excused for giving some account of this entertainment. We were conducted upon horses covered with magnificent housings, and preceded by a crowd of tchocodars (servants) and ushers, to the favourite summer-house of the Vizir; an edifice built of the finest white marble, and divided into four recesses filled with sofas, and painted in the eastern style. These recesses opened upon a fountain that occupied the centre of the building, and was formed into a square castle surrounded by batteries spouting water at one another in accompaniment to an organ. In one of the recesses dined only Mr. North and the Pacha: in an adjoining one, a table was placed for Mehemet Effendi, the Vizir's prime minister; the Divan Effendi, agent to the Porte; Mr. Foresti, our resident at Joannina; Captain Davison; and myself; and so managed that neither of the parties saw or heard the other. In this way we followed the example of the minister, who did the honours of the dinner, through sixty-four dishes, of each of which the nicety of oriental etiquette obliged us to taste: and the heterogeneous succession of milk, fish, meat, milk again, soup, pastry, meat, &c. rendered still more unpleasant the neglect of the knife and fork which politeness enjoined.’

‘ § “ Where'er we gaze, above, around, below,
What various tints, what magic charms are found,
Rock, river, forest, mountain, all abound;
And bluest skies that harmonize the whole,
Beneath, the distant torrent's rushing sound
Tells where the volumed cataract doth roll
Between those hanging rocks that shock yet please the soul.

Childe Harold, Cant. 2. St. 47.”

Pindar.

Pindus, the modern Mezzovo. From its summit, in clear weather, both the Ionian and Egean seas are sometimes to be discovered; and I have understood it to be higher above their level than any other of the Grecian mountains. *

‘ After crossing it we entered the ancient Thessaly, and were much struck by the contrast which its green slopes, studded with groves of planes, and affording pasture to herds of cattle classically white, formed with the rugged beauty we had been admiring in Epirus.

‘ Following the course of the Peneus, the monastery of Meteora and the towns of Triccala and Larissa were in our road; and having visited Tempe †, and the remarkable village of Ambelachia, we embarked at Volo for Constantinople.

‘ As the north-west wind, or Meltem, had closed the entrance to the Hellespont, I landed at Cape Baba, and having crossed the Troad ‡, embarked once more at Gallipoli, where Mr. North, after considerable delay, had arrived by sea. We proceeded in a piadé § along the northern shore of the sea of Marmara, to the city of Constantine: eight Turks formed our crew, who rowed with the greatest velocity for six or seven hours at a time: while the songs with which they enlivened their exertions; the beautiful scenery along which we passed; and weather so fine, that our night was spent upon the water, though the day had been far from sultry, heightened the pleasure of approaching Constantinople.’

On examining the contents of these travels, we do not find any part of them so well calculated for quotation as that which relates to the miscellaneous customs of the modern Greeks;

‘ * Upon Pindus the road became so bad that one of our party was obliged to cross it in a net borne upon the shoulders of four Greeks. — I remarked that fir woods clothed its sides, while beech seemed the only tree capable of bearing the cold of its more elevated regions.’

‘ † Tempe, the only defile through which it is possible to enter Greece from the north, still breathes from its cliffs and groves that refreshing coolness so often and so well described from Herodotus to Barthelemi. Its scenery certainly did not answer my expectations, but expectations of Tempe could not easily be realized.

‘ Compare the description of Herodotus with the account of a defile in Cashmire, given by Bernier.’

‘ ‡ I am told that many of my cotemporaries in Greece have returned in the persuasion that Troy never existed but in the imagination of Homer; this disbelief betrays so much important history to the ravages of scepticism, that I feel happy in having been able to convince myself upon the spot of its general correspondence with the narration of the Iliad; though even with Chevalier in my hand, I could hardly satisfy myself of all its details.’

‘ § A piadé is a narrow boat of from twenty to forty-five feet in length, very sharp both in the prow and stern: it is built of willow, and often beautifully carved and ornamented.’

their

their Marriages, Dances, Games, Funerals, Feasts, Baths, &c. &c. &c. The chapter, for instance, which notices the former writers on Greece, and assigns his due meed of praise or dispraise to each particular predecessor, — namely to Eton, to Thornton, to Chandler, to Stuart, to Gell, to Sir George Wheeler, to Dr. Spon, to Sonnini, to Savary, to Chateaubriand, to Pouqueville, and to Tournefort, for with so little regard to chronology are they introduced, — would be mutilated most unfairly by detached quotation; and so would the concluding chapter, on that curious political question whether the Greeks are likely to recover their rank among nations, and on the necessary ramification of this question, what would be the effect on the permanent interests of England, provided that they were to succeed in any attempt to shake off the Turkish yoke? It is obvious that nothing but an imperfect discussion of these points could be offered within our limits; and we therefore prefer to confine ourselves to the miscellaneous customs of the present race of Greeks. ‘The variety of nations inhabiting the Peninsula of Greece; the Population; the Face of the Country; the Climate; the Religion, Literature, Language; the general Character of the modern Greeks; the Athenians; Constantinopolitans; Mainiots; Hydriots;’ &c. &c. &c. — all these interesting subjects we shall leave to the examination of our readers in the work itself; only endeavouring to afford them a specimen of the entertainment and instruction which they are likely to derive from this classical composition, by selections from the portion which we have mentioned.

The most complete account in our selected chapter is that of the marriages in modern Greece; and, with a very few exceptions, we shall give the entire passage:

‘The Greek girls are so strictly confined to their homes, that few of their marriages are founded in personal acquaintance and attachment. Circumstances of relationship, neighbourhood, or interest, are the more usual motives; and the agreement of the respective parents often made at the birth of the child, or even at their own marriage, can be but little influenced by

‘Le rapport des esprits et des cœurs,
Des sentimens, des gouts, et des humeurs;*

which we justly consider as so necessary to the happiness of a conjugal life.

‘Instances, however, sometimes occur, in which the report of others, or his own accidental knowledge, may induce a young Greek to form an opinion for himself; and he then applies to some respect-

* Voltaire, *Enfant Prodigue*, Acte 3. Sc. 1.’

able matron, probably a relation of the girl, who assumes the name and character of the ancient Proxenate; carries messages and letters; or brings him accounts of the person and manners of his beloved. From the moment that the treaty is completed, it is customary to give the betrothed couple the liberty of seeing each other; and there have been examples among the lower classes, where the young pair have been permitted even to sleep together for years without the sacred girdle having ever been undone; so powerful is the fear of the excommunication which, on such a transgression, would certainly be levelled at their heads.

‘ On the eve of the marriage, the bride is conducted by her young female friends to the bath; and the next morning, as soon as the dawn begins to appear, the lover, in his most splendid dress, accompanied by the dearest and handsomest of his companions, proceeds to the house of her parents: there the procession begins; first, by a crowd of young men, with guitars and cymbals, dancing and hallooing, more than singing, in praise of the family, the virtues, the beauty of the young pair; or alluding in songs, sometimes not strictly regulated by decorum, to the ceremonies of the happy day. At some distance from her noisy heralds, the bride (*νυμφη*) herself, her arms covered with bracelets, and her bosom with necklaces, is supported between her father and her bridewoman (*παρὰ νυμφη*) with measured steps and eyes fixed upon the ground. If she expected the fate of Iphigenia *, her repugnance could not seem more genuine, nor her march more slow. When she passes before the house of an acquaintance, flowers, nuts, and cakes are showered from the windows, while words of good omen and vows for her prosperity attend her as she proceeds †. The train is then closed by the mother of the bride, and other matrons.

‘ During the ceremony itself, two chaplets of lilies and ears of corn (emblems of purity and abundance) are placed by the priest alternately upon the heads both of the bride and bridegroom, and a similar rite is performed with two rings of gold and silver, which are exchanged between them several times; the gold remaining at last with the husband. Afterwards they are led by the brideman three times round the altar, under a shawl that is held over their heads. They must then drink from the same goblet of wine, which is presented to them by the father of the bride.

‘ When evening approaches the festival is renewed, with many of the same circumstances; and the bridegroom, having met the procession halfway with all his party crowned with flowers ‡, and flou-

‘ * Nam sublata virum manibus tremebundaque ad aras
Deducta est, non ut solenni more sacrorum
Perfecto posset claro comitari Hymenæo:
Sed casta, incestè, nubendi tempore in ipso,
Hostia concideret macratu mœsta parentis.

LUCRETIUS, Lib. i, v. 96.’

‘ † Παῖς ἐς τὸ καλόν, &c.’

‘ ‡ Cinge amaranthino coronas, &c. — CAT. *Epith.*’

rishing torches in the air, or dashing them upon the ground*, conducts his wife to her future abode. †

‘ When they arrive, the bride is supported by her father and mother, that she may not touch the threshold ‡; though in some parts of Greece the honour of the husband obliges her, before she enters it, to tread upon a sieve of leather. Should it not yield to the pressure, no explanation, no riches, no former character, will induce him to receive as his wife, one whose previous misconduct has been proved by so infallible a test.

‘ The picture I have attempted to sketch is the fair unvarnished description of a Greek marriage. In reading it how many circumstances of former days recur! How much does the whole ceremony remind us of a classical age! Catullus, in his *Epithalamium*, has mentioned no event, consistent with the change of the religion, which does not take place at the wedding of a modern Greek. The *flammeum* itself is to be seen among the Armenians, who have disfigured, by many absurd customs, a ceremony originally borrowed from their neighbours. The tears of the bride, the decent coyness that delays her steps, the Fescennine licence of the noisy song §, are all essential to the modern festival; nor should the nuts and fruit which are dropped upon her from the windows as she proceeds, be forgotten; a custom supposed to be ominous of plenty, and never neglected in the ancient ceremony ||. Catullus himself, however, is not so accurate in his description of this ceremony as Homer. Upon the shield of Achilles may yet be traced the most lively features in the customs of his country, and he has painted none with more spirit than the wedding. ¶

‘ Ἐν τῇ μὲν ῥα γάμοι ἴ' ἔσαν ἑλαπίνας τε
 Νύμφας δ' ἐκ θαλάμῳ, δαΐδων ὑπολαμπομενάων,
 Ἦγόνιον ἀνὰ ἄστρ' πολὺς δ' ὑμέναιος ὀρώρει.
 Κῆροι δ' ἐρχηστῆρες ἰδύνον, ἐν δ' ἄρα τοῖσιν
 Αὐλοί, Φόρμιγγές τε βοὴν ἔχον· αἱ δὲ γυναῖκες
 Ἰσάμεναι θαύμαζον ἐπὶ προθύροισιν ἑκάστη. **

‘ As

‘ * *Claustra pandite januæ.*

Viden, ut faces splendidas quatiunt comas? CAT. *Epith.*’

‘ † Sed moraris; abit dies,

Prodeas nova nupta.—*Ibid.*’

‘ ‡ The threshold has been esteemed sacred in every age; and there is a passage in Plautus, which seems to advise the bride to avoid touching it.—PLAUTUS, *Casina*, Act 4. Sc. 4.’

‘ § Cat. *Epith.*’

‘ || Da nuces, concubine.—*Ibid.*

Sparge marite, nuces.—*Ibid.*’

‘ ¶ Il. Lib. xviii. v. 491.’

‘ ** Here sacred pomp and genial feast delight,
 And solemn dance and hymeneal rite :
 Along the street the new-made brides are led,
 With torches flaming to the nuptial bed.

The

‘ As soon as the bride has entered her new habitation, she is conducted by the paranympa to the genial couch, where she is joined by her husband, while the rest of the party remain in the outer chamber till midnight, dancing and raising the loudest clamours *.’

This description has extended to such a length, and gives our classical readers so fair an opportunity of appreciating the merits of the author, that we shall not prolong this article. We must observe, however, that, throughout the quotations in this volume, frequent inaccuracies may be detected; and, though *we* are perfectly convinced, by the general spirit and understanding which pervade the work, that these are mere slips of the pen or errors of the press, yet the tone of the day, on these subjects, is *condemnation*, when an error is discovered. *Dii meliora piis!* — or, if our fault-finding contemporaries deem this a too mild and too hackneyed citation, we would recommend the following to their serious reflection:

Σμικρα παλαια ΠΙΝΕΤΜΑΤ' ευναζει ροπη.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

FOR JUNE, 1815.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 15. *The Fruits of Perseverance*; being three Sermons, on recent public Occasions. By William Mavor, LL.D. Rector of Bladon with Woodstock, Oxon, &c. 8vo. 3s. Rivingtons. 1814.

On very common topics, it is almost impossible to say any thing new; and it is of more importance, especially in discourses from the pulpit, to be correct and practical. Dr. Mavor's object is to display sound divinity without seeking after novelty; and his exhortations, in the first sermon, on the fast-day, March 10. 1813, to virtuous perseverance in promoting individual and national security, are composed in a style that is calculated to produce the desired effect: but he carries the matter a little too far when he speaks of the pious soldier's ‘arm being raised (p. 14.) *in defence of his God.*’ He may indeed ‘defend his King, his country, and his liberty:’ but the Deity can receive no

The youthful dancers in a circle bound
To the soft flute and cittern's silver sound;
Thro' the fair streets the matrons in a row,
Stand in their porches and enjoy the show.’

* Du Guys conjectures, but I think fancifully, that the famous lines of Pindar allude to the cup of wine which is presented to the bride and bridegroom at the altar; it appears to me, to refer more naturally to the feast (ἑλαπίνη) which follows the wedding.’

protection from any creature's efforts. "Power belongeth unto God;" and it is a species of impiety even to intimate that his throne ever wants the support of our puny arm. — The second discourse, delivered as a Thanksgiving Sermon, January 13. 1814, displays the fruits of perseverance continued against the disturber of nations, and preaches the animating truth that 'no power, but the power of God, can subdue that people who are determined to be independent.' The preservation of our civil and ecclesiastical constitution is also stated as a reason for gratitude; but the preacher permits his zeal for the church to absorb his Christian temper, when he attributes to *hypocrisy* and religious quixotism the attempts of the Bible and Missionary Society to diffuse Gospel-light. Surely he makes too broad an assertion, in declaring that 'the labours of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge have alone consistency and unity in their design.' We perceive that he is averse to an union with the members of other Christian churches, even for the purpose of advancing Christian knowledge; yet he kindly hopes, though he would not meet them on earth, 'to sit down with them as brethren in the kingdom of God.' — We are next called to rejoice in the turn which politics took in the year 1813, when, by the conflagration of Moscow, a torch was lighted which has since illuminated and is illuminating every other region. The preacher, however, seems to forget our obligations to the Hard Frost, without which the conflagration would not have effected this service. In the last place, it is urged as a source of the warmest thanksgiving, that, during the long contest, the scourge of war has not been felt in our borders.

It is sufficient to observe of the last sermon, preached on the day of thanksgiving on the restoration of peace, that Dr. M. is pleased with the prospect which this event afforded; being of opinion that, 'on the whole, moral justice is satisfied, and that heaven has vindicated its ways to man.' How little did he think that the fair prospect of repose and plenty would so soon be overshadowed!

Art. 16. *A Treatise on the Second Chapter of the Prophet Daniel; together with Thoughts and Reflections on some other Parts of the sacred Writings, tending to shew that Britain is the Kingdom which Daniel declares that the God of Heaven will set up, and that it is the Kingdom of God.* By John Hawkins, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Baldwin.

If this interpretation may be flattering to our vanity as Britons, we cannot bring our judgment as critics to acquiesce in it. Indeed, the doctrine is so very lamely supported, that it is more open to ridicule than intitled to grave discussion: but we wish not to be unseasonably ludicrous.

Art. 17. *A Father's Letters to his Children: in which the Holiness, Justice, and Mercy of God are shewn to have ever existed upon the same Foundation of Wisdom, Truth, and Love; and the Messiah the only Saviour of Gentiles, Jews, and Christians, from the Beginning of the World.* By a Country Gentleman. Crown 8vo. pp. 218. 6s. Boards. Hatchard.

We are far from agreeing with this Country-Gentleman, who is disposed to tax himself with vanity on account of the present publication.

cation: for his motive, we are persuaded, was pure; he meant not to acquire fame, but to impart instruction. Seriousness, piety, and a love of the Scriptures are prominent features in his character: but, though he signs himself *Biblicus*, he is, in our judgment, indifferently qualified for lecturing on the Bible, as an expositor; especially, he seems to want that clear method of explanation which is essential to those who compile a summary of the doctrines of religion for the instruction of young persons. It will not be requisite for us to give any other evidence of this incompetence, than the beginning of the second letter, on the insufficiency of reason for true religion:

‘Let me endeavour to arrange my views on this important subject. We should “be ready always to give an answer to every one that asketh a reason of the hope that is in us, with meekness and fear;” 1 Pet. iii. 15. Christ is that reason; — and this brings me back to the place whence I first set out — the necessity of knowing Him, as he is revealed to us in Scripture. Now Christ, or the Messiah, or the Anointed, is a relative term signifying him who was anointed by God to the office of Redeemer of lost mankind. In the knowledge of Christ, therefore, is necessarily included the knowledge of ourselves.’

Had this gentleman said that the hope which is in us is Christ, or is established on Christ, we should not have objected to his statement: but to assert that the reason, which we are required to give for this hope, is the hope itself, is — we will not say what. — It is singular enough that an apostle should be quoted who requires the exercise of reason in religion, by a writer who decides on the insufficiency of reason.

Art. 18. *An Inquiry into the Evidence of the Divine Origin of the Christian Religion.* 8vo. 1s. Bickerstaff.

Though this little pamphlet is not marked as a new edition, we cannot help thinking that we have seen it before, and noticed the singular position on which the ‘Inquiry’ proceeds; viz. that, supposing Christianity to be of Divine origin, ‘we are no more able to judge of it than a blind man is of colours.’ As well might it be asserted that it is impossible for the Deity to accommodate a revelation to the capacities of his rational creatures. After such a preliminary, the proofs adduced may be viewed with suspicion.

Art. 19. *Hints to the Clergy of the Established Church*, particularly to its Rulers, on the present relaxed State of Ecclesiastical Discipline, and the consequent Increase of National Corruption. In a Letter to a Friend. By a Member of the Established Church. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1814.

Apprehensive that this country is on the verge of a precipice, caused by its immoral character, this writer sounds the alarm, and cautions us against ‘thinking that we are the favourites of Heaven because we have been made instruments in overthrowing the late tyrant of Europe.’ The clergy, however, will not be much disposed to thank him for the warning voice which is here raised; because it is blended with a direct attack on their body for negligence and irregularity in the discharge of their duty. Even bishops and arch-
bishops

bishops come under the lash ; and the *grand dinner* given on a Sunday at Lambeth, after the consecration of the present Bishop of London, is noticed as indecorous. Let not, then, that clergyman complain who is *called over the coals* for wearing *coloured stockings and dirty boots*. If in other respects our clergy do their duty, we cannot suppose that God will visit them with his judgments for such trifles, which do not rank even with minor immoralities : but the neglect of duty, and the shutting up of parish churches which ought to be regularly kept open for divine worship, are more serious charges, and should excite remorse in those to whom they apply. Some of the hints here offered certainly merit notice : but the author is too minute in his animadversions, and in certain cases is evidently too squeamish. Surely, he cannot seriously think that we shall be precipitated, as a nation, from the verge of the precipice into the gulph, because the custom of crying *milk* and *mackarel* on Sundays is continued !

Art. 20. *Sermons on the present and future State of Man.* By the Rev. B. Carpenter. 2 Vols. 12mo. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

In discussing a number of interesting subjects, this preacher has manifested a considerable knowledge of mankind, together with a serious desire of promoting their best welfare. His sermons are short, perspicuous, impressive, and calculated to urge us to the performance of those duties which attach to us as temporary inhabitants of this world, looking forwards to a more beatific and permanent state of existence. They are not ill adapted for family-reading, and in this view we can recommend them. As a moral preacher, Mr. C. reasons in a plain and forcible manner ; and if, in the concluding discourses, he surrenders himself in some degree to the imagination, it must be remembered that he is treating of a world which "eye hath not seen." To persons who have lost dear and precious friends, the sermon '*on an intermediate State*' presents matter of great consolation : but Mr. C. does not endeavour to reconcile this doctrine with those of the resurrection and of a future judgment ; nor to satisfy the queries of metaphysical and philosophic Christians.—In the discourses before us, none of those singular opinions are displayed which the author has divulged in the preface to that little romance or vision called, "*The Comet*," which will be found noticed in another part of this number. (P. 214.) In one place, (Vol. ii. p. 62.) indeed, the writer speaks of 'brighter suns and fairer worlds, where man hopes to take up his everlasting residence :' but he does not point to the sun as his future heaven. We prefer, however, the practical to the speculative sermons. Mr. Carpenter has not aimed at the essay-form, but regularly arranges his subjects under distinct heads.

The Triumph of Fashion, and *The Comet*, are advertized as works of this author.

Art. 21. *A New Directory for Nonconformist Churches :* containing free Remarks on their Mode of Public Worship, and a Plan for the Improvement of it : with occasional Notes on various Topics of general Interest to Protestant Dissenters. Respectfully
REV. JUNE, 1815. P addressed

addressed to Dissenting Ministers of all Denominations, and to Tutors of Academies. 8vo. pp. 157. 5s. Boards. Johnson and Co.

This volume 'is intitled "A new Directory," with reference to that which was set forth by the venerable Assembly of Divines, A.D. 1645, of which Mr. Neal has given a copy in his History of the Puritans.' Judging by the facts here stated, the Nonconformist Protestant Church is still open to farther *protests*, or capable of being considerably improved; and the authors of this New Directory, being Protestant Dissenting Ministers, and thoroughly aware of the defects in the mode of divine worship in the church to which they belong, here manifest a commendable solicitude for the removal of them. Their sentiments display judgment, liberality, and caution; and their hints are intitled to the attention of the religious body to which they are addressed. On the subject of extempore-prayer, they speak without reserve; admitting the full force of those objections to which it is certainly liable, and suggesting a matured plan for regulating the improprieties which this practice, when indiscriminately and universally adopted, cannot fail to introduce into public worship.

EDUCATION.

Art. 22. *Rules for pronouncing and reading the French Language.*
By the Rev. Israel Worsley. 12mo. 2s. Longman and Co.
1814.

Rules for pronouncing are here, as they must always be, insufficient; and Mr. Worsley's directions seem particularly vague. For instance, in page 14. he says that the *g* is mute in *rang* and *sang*, whereas those words have a different sound from that which they would receive without the *g*. In page 27. we are told merely that '*miennne, siennne, tiennne*, are not nasal sounds;' when it should have been stated that *no* French words terminating with a double *n* and *e* final are to be considered as nasal sounds. In the list of particles, it is probably from an error of the press that *du* is directed to be employed as a substitute for *de la*: the term should be *de le*, because *de la* is correct before a noun feminine, when *du* would be improper. In page 42. the particle *que* is not added to the potential mood, which is thus written by Mr. Worsley:

'*Je parle*, I may or can speak,
'*Je parlasse*, I might or could speak,'

yet nobody would speak correctly who should speak thus; and the omission of *que* may mislead learners, though it is, for the sake of brevity, in the conjugation of verbs, tolerated by grammarians.

We agree with Mr. W. in advising the student to 'begin soon to read,' since we believe that, in acquiring any language, this is the best method: but we cannot see the necessity for removing every flower from the road to learning; nor for chusing, according to Mr. W.'s advice, 'such books as are least interesting, in order that the attention may not be drawn from the rules of pronunciation.'

Art. 23. *Original Letters of Advice to a Young Lady.* By the Author of "The Polite Reasoner." 12mo. 2s. 6d. bound. Souter. 1814.

In this specimen of book-making, four pages are occupied by a part of the 40th chapter of Isaiah, 'given in case the reader should not have *that book* immediately at hand;' and the writer is mistaken in ascribing to Dr. Garnett the eastern tale of *Zadig and the Basilisk*: but we will not trouble our readers with the numerous inaccuracies which abound in these letters, because they are compensated by no attractions: the ideas and advice are equally common-place, and perhaps have been "ne'er so ill expressed" in any recent work on similar subjects.

Art. 24. *A Synopsis of French Grammar; comprehending the most useful and necessary Rules in Chambaud's Grammar, and many other Points and Peculiarities on the French Language.* By P. F. Merlet. 12mo. 2s. Longman and Co. 1815.

It may be objected against this little book that it refers continually to Chambaud's Grammar, instead of 'comprehending the most useful rules' in that work; and we attempted in vain to *practise* M. Merlet's directions for pronouncing the French particles *un* and *on*, in articulating which he enjoins his reader to 'emit the second sound from the pit of the stomach, and to convey it through the nose.' The best part of the treatise is the 'selection of words and phrases which, occurring often in English, have a particular acceptation in French.' These are stated to have been taken from *Le Manuel Epistolaire*, of which M. Merlet does not inform us who is the author: but the opposition and variation of several phrases in the two languages are here so clearly shewn, that this selection merits attention; and, though not so copious as it might be wished, it will be found decidedly useful.

NOVELS.

Art. 25. *The History of Mr. John Decastro and his Brother Bat,* commonly called Old Crab. 12mo. 4 Vols. Boards. Egerton. 1815.

Though this book is too long for the matter which it contains, it will furnish a treat to the humourist: but it may not be universally relished, because the drollery with which it abounds is displayed in quaint expressions rather than in ludicrous situations. Some of the scenes, however, are in a style of broad farce which reminds us of Smollett's laughable pages: the devices of Lady Charlotte and of Genevieve, the one to encourage a bashful swain and the other to attract a philosophic lover, are amusing and ingenious; and many of the characters are drawn with more spirit and oddity than we often find in the novels of the present day. Yet we must not pass without reprehension the gross language sometimes employed by this writer: he has too frequently substituted swearing for wit; and the story of Genevieve's imprisonment, with some others of his episodes, are too obviously improbable.

Art. 26. *Records of a Noble Family*, by Jane Harvey, Author of "Memoirs of an Author," &c. &c. 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

On opening this novel, we are overwhelmed with excellence : not that we have ourselves the satisfaction of discovering the smallest particle of it, but in the first page we find it attributed in overweening proportions to 'the Earl of Colchester, with his angelic Countess, his lovely daughter, and her invaluable governess.' The same hyperbolical strain continues throughout the work ; and Lady Matilda enjoins her lover to 'read her epistles as the genuine, unshrouded, indestructible records of her soul.' Unless, however, other 'noble families' of the author's acquaintance meet with more instructive or interesting adventures than those which are here recorded, few readers will have curiosity enough to penetrate deeply into their "family secrets."

Art. 27. *The Recluse of Norway*. By Miss Anna Maria Porter. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

Miss Porter here sets out on the mistaken notion that she can give *originality* to her tale, 'by pitching upon Norway as the principal scene of action, merely because it was ground untrodden by other novel writers.' To attain this object, she should have chosen a field of fancy untenanted by other authors ; whereas she has now given a set of characters and occurrences which are familiar, (to novel-readers,) changing merely their "local habitations and their names." Count Lauvenheim is the most interesting of the personages : but the way in which he discovers his plans to Theodore is contrived in the true spirit of fictitious imprudence. He lays himself at once completely open to a man whose loyalty and principles he had long known, instead of first proposing his schemes abstractedly, as any traitor in his senses would have done. It is also "passing strange" that Theodore, when but ten years old, should perfectly comprehend the 'profound analysis and disquisitions' of Professor Sergendal ; particularly as he is said to have had 'no uncommon quickness of capacity distinguishing him from other boys.' We may add that the interlocutors in this tale are too fond of calling themselves names ; and that, while the fair author favours us with numerous specimens of the conceit and blunders of these *soi disant* 'fools,' 'asses,' and 'tiresome jesters,' she generally makes us take her bare word for their wit and learning. On the whole, we think that this novel is not so creditable to the acknowledged talents of Miss Porter as were some of her former productions ; though even this cannot be read without interest.

Art. 28. *Duty*, by the late Mrs. Roberts, Author of "Rose and Emily : " interspersed with Poetry, and preceded by a Character of the Author, by Mrs. Opie. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

We must be made of most "impenetrable stuff," if we criticized severely the last work of a writer whose domestic character is represented by her fair biographer as having been truly amiable and exemplary. Our consideration, however, for the deceased friend of Mrs. Opie will not be at variance with our love of truth, since this

book is simple, moral, and amusing: though the dutiful self-denial of Julia and Bertha is, perhaps, not sufficiently shewn to result from religious principle.

Art. 29. *The Bachelor's Journal*; edited by Miss Byron, Author of "The Englishman," "The Englishwoman," &c. &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Newman and Co. 1815.

An ingenious history of feelings and observations, displaying some knowledge of human nature, and written in a creditable style, yet having so little either of plot or story that most readers will wish the bachelor to have abridged his journal. It would, however, be a bad return for a compliment, if we were to own that we found no part of the work more interesting than the praises which the author is pleased to bestow on us, for the impartiality of our critical awards.

EAST-INDIES.

Art. 30. *Pendeb-i-attar*: The Counsels of Attar. Edited from a Persian Manuscript, by the Rev. J. H. Hindley, A.M. 12mo. pp. 122. Boards. Black and Co.

We have here one of the few instances, which our intercourse with the East has yet produced, of oriental literature consigned to an European printer. It is an impression, in the original Persian, of some short poems, which have a high reputation in the countries where the language is understood: but here it can be of use to those only who are interested in acquiring a knowledge of Persic; a class of persons made up almost entirely of those who have been, or who intend to be, servants of the East-India-Company. The Persian is the language of business over a great portion of Asia, and, to those who are destined for Asiatic transactions, is of the greatest utility: but, in a mere literary point of view, unless to an author who would write the history of Persia, it is of little importance. It contains nothing which can instruct an European scholar, and little that can please an European taste. In philosophy it is totally barren. Its history, loose, inaccurate, and fabulous, affords materials for conjecture rather than for belief; or at best it enables us to draw a sort of outline, beyond which we have no certainty in proceeding. The poetry of Persia, as in all rude nations, is the most celebrated part of its literature: but, where nature and good sense are deemed requisite to good poetry, the Persian muse will not be admired.

In this little volume are included seventy-six poems, chiefly intended to enforce moral precepts, and prudential maxims in life. The subjects are nearly of the same nature with those of many of the proverbs of Solomon: and if the latter had been in verse, and each, instead of being couched in a brief sentence, had been clothed in diffuse and poetic language, they would very much have resembled the Counsels of Attar. — By judges of Persian versification, that of the poems before us is greatly admired; and they are also accounted models of Persian simplicity, which, however, would be likely to obtain rather a different name in English. We wish that the editor had accompanied them with an English translation; in such prose, for example, as

that of the translation of the Bible; which would have rendered the publication useful to rather more than the twenty or thirty individuals in all England, who may be supposed to be capable of deriving any pleasure from the original. Such translations, though not much calculated to infuse the pleasures which poetry is destined to yield, serve the desirable purpose of rendering the people of this country better acquainted with the genius of oriental nations, with which their interests have so many points of connection.

Art. 31. *The Stranger's East-India Guide to the Hindoostanee, or grand popular Language of India, improperly called Moors.* By John Borthwick Gilchrist, LL.D. Author of the *Hindoostanee Philology, Indian Monitor, &c. &c. &c.* Second Edition. 8vo. Boards. Black, Parry, and Co.

The Hindoostanee is the common language of the great body of the people throughout a large portion of India: but it is not the language of books, nor of business of the more serious and exalted kinds. It is, however, very useful in the details of common intercourse; and the help which is yielded by the work before us must have its value to persons who are destined for India, as long as a better introduction to the vulgar dialects of that country is not afforded them. It may be regarded as somewhat remarkable, that so little has been done to facilitate to our countrymen an acquaintance with the Indian tongues; on a knowledge of which so materially depends their success in the discharge of their duties, with respect both to their own fortunes and those of their country.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *The Triumph of Fashion; a Vision.* 12mo. 2s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

Art. 33. *The Comet; A Vision.* By the Author of the *Triumph of Fashion.* 12mo. 2s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

The first of this pair of visions presents us, *à la mode d'Homère*, with speeches of gods and goddesses; and the second with a very singular dialogue between an inhabitant of the last comet and the author. In the former, the writer makes the gods promulgate his sentiments on modern female education, &c.; and in the latter he employs *Cometus*, the inhabitant of the comet, as the vehicle of his theological opinions:—but, if in the one the power of fashion is well illustrated, in the other the visionary is too manifest. Some years ago, a writer attempted to prove that hell was in the sun: but the author of 'The Comet' contends that it is heaven. His creed shall be given in his own words. He believes—'that Christ is the great and glorious Regent of the solar system.—He thinks it probable that the sun is the heaven of that system.—He conjectures that its inhabitants are removed from one planet to another.—And he is inclined to receive the doctrine of the pre-existence of human souls, which was believed by several fathers of the Christian church, as well as by the greatest sages of antiquity.' (See p. 209. of this Number.)

Art. 34. *Observations on the Use of the Words "Shall" and "Will;"* chiefly designed for Foreigners, and Persons educated at

at a Distance from the Metropolis, and also for the Use of Schools. Containing 35 Rules, with Examples to each, and a Variety of appropriate Phrases. 12mo. 1s. Longman and Co.

This is a clever and useful little tract, well answering the purposes mentioned in its title-page. Much ingenious discrimination is manifested in the several instances in which "*will*" and "*shall*" are apparently but not really interchangeable; and, although unobtrusive in size and form, the work contains many principles that display no common insight into the philosophy of grammar. An arch and lively style of humour also characterizes some of the illustrations; selected as they are from sundry of our best or most entertaining authors. From Addison, Sterne, Johnson, Centlivre, &c. &c. we have frequently instructive and always apposite examples. — We give one specimen :

‘ RULE XXII.

‘ In matters which are subjects of strong interest, such as may be supposed sufficient to overpower choice, we use *shall*.

‘ *Examples.*

‘ We shall lament. We shall be overjoyed. I shall sympathize. I shall be offended, displeased, gratified. I shall be anxious. I shall be unable to think on any other subject. I shall grieve. I shall repine. I shall be angry. I shall despair. I shall regret. I shall be vexed. I shall be mortified. I shall be confounded. We shall be taken by surprise. We shall consider ourselves highly honoured. We shall be infinitely obliged. I shall be astonished if the report be confirmed. Oh ! with what joy shall I hear it disproved !

‘ “ Verily we shall laugh at thee most egregiously.” — *Mrs. Centlivre.*

‘ “ With all my heart, faith — I shall laugh in my turn too.” — *Mrs. Centlivre.*

‘ “ How shall I contain my surprise and satisfaction.” — *Steele.*

‘ “ How shall I speak the transport of my soul.” — *Addison.*

‘ “ I shall scarce recover my spirits these three days !” — *Goldsmith.*

‘ “ Confusion ! Distraction ! I shall run mad.” — *Bickerstaff.*

‘ “ I never shall endure her.” — *Shakspeare.*

‘ “ Dr. Johnson was so delighted with this scene, that he said I know not how we shall get away.” — *Tour to the Hebrides.*

‘ “ Think what enthusiastic happiness I shall have to see Mr. Samuel Johnson walking among the romantick rocks and woods of my ancestors at Auchinleck.” — *Boswell.*

“ ————— — Bid me hold my tongue ;
For in this rapture I shall surely speak
The thing I shall repent.” — *Shakspeare.*

Art. 35. *The Germany and Agricola of C. Cornelius Tacitus*, from Brotier's Text, with all his Observations, Notes, and Emendations ; and with Critical and Philological Remarks, by Edmund Henry Barker, of Trinity-College, Cambridge. 12mo. 6s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co., &c.

We have so lately given our opinion on the degree of literary merit, to which the critical and philological remarks of Mr. Barker can lay claim *, that we have at present no occasion to do more than to offer a brief opinion of the utility of the republication before us. Certainly, as Mr. Barker does not omit to inform his readers, an edition is here presented to them which is more complete than that of Mr. Relhan, (of which we took notice in its place,) ‘*for less money* ;’ — the notes and emendations of Brotier, appended to the text, which Mr. B. had omitted, being inserted by the present editor.

The volume is preceded by the usual pompous display of authors cited in the original notes, every name that can be pressed into the service being introduced ; whether the passage in the author merely formed a part of a reference in a dictionary, or was really the subject of distinct examination by this indefatigable framer of *Adversaria*. We have condemned this practice already ; and, as we find nothing better nor any thing worse in the present notes than in the similar commentaries elsewhere published by the same author, we shall bid adieu to him for the present, recommending his little volume to the use of schools.

Art. 36. *Description of an improved Method of delineating Estates ; with a Sketch of the Progress of Landscape-gardening in England, and Opinions on the Picturesque Effects attending Rural Ornament.* By T. Hornor, Land-surveyor, and Planner of Estates. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Harding.

We are told that this book is published because the author is ‘*desirous* p. 6.) of answering at once all enquiries that have already been or may hereafter be made, as well as of removing any objections that have and may be urged against this pictorial mode of delineation.’ We had erroneously supposed, on taking up the volume, that it was designed to prove that the accurate plan or map of an estate could be combined in the same drawing which represented the pictorial view of it : but, as such proofs might be too troublesome for readers, the author shortly comes to a conclusion in the second page, in these words, ‘*assuming then, as I may safely do, that my drawings possess this requisite, I trust,*’ &c. ‘*The nature* (p. 18.) *of the improvement has been fully explained, and specimens are now extant :*’ so that the reader must not have any doubt of the fact, although he should not find any evidence of it in the work : it is sufficient that he has the author’s word for it. — With the prospect of so much improvement in the art of delineating estates, it might seem fastidious in us to start any difficulties because our eye-sight may not be quite so perfect as that of Mr. Hornor ; and we confess that it is too dim to see through the hill the plan of the other side of it. We were formerly entertained with what were called *bird’s eye views* : but we suppose that these must not stand in competition with Mr. Hornor’s productions. We had, indeed, been told that pictorial drafts, or perspective plans, had long been laid aside for accurate

* See our account of the “*Classical Recreations*,” M. R. for April last.

plans, the one being incompatible with the other : but it now seems that our forefathers were not conjurers.

Art. 37. *Thoughts on various charitable and other important Institutions*, and on the best Mode of conducting them. To which is subjoined, an Address to the Females of the rising Generation. By Catharine Cappe. 8vo. 38. Longman and Co. 1814.

In Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 223. we gave some account of the pamphlet which may be considered as the first edition of the present enlarged publication. Mrs. Cappe, though styling herself an aged and unlettered female, possesses a masculine understanding, combined with an amiable heart ; and her reflections on charitable institutions and friendly societies are the result of long and assiduous attention. However disposed the public may have been, and still are, to support those charity-schools in which boys and girls are boarded and lodged, this respectable lady is of opinion that, for training up youth to a prudent conduct in future life, the advantage is decidedly in favour of *day schools, united with a home-education*. It cannot admit of a doubt, if the poor are best taught in this way, that the middling classes would be benefited by a similar mode of education ; since this would obviate that evil, which has so often been reprobated as inseparable from the boarding-school system, viz. imbuing the children of tradesmen, gentlemen, and nobles, with the same ideas, and puffing up the former with notions above their condition. If children are to occupy the same rank with their parents, they should not be too much removed from the domestic roof : the day-school affords them sufficient opportunities for instruction ; and the house of their parents should be their home. Mrs. Cappe, in treating of the case of poor orphans, recommends that, instead of congregating them in a large building, according to the old plan, they should generally be boarded in the private houses of respectable poor people. Very cogent arguments are also adduced against the practice of apprenticing females for their labour ; and the suggestions here given respecting the best method of placing out young girls, on their leaving a charity-school, are intitled to particular notice. Willing to induce in the poor a spirit of independence, and to encourage them in respecting themselves, Mrs. C. descants on the utility of benefit-clubs, or friendly societies, and recommends that gentlemen and ladies should be honorary members ; cautioning them at the same time against classing their subscriptions to the general fund under the head of charity. Having also, from her own experience, ascertained the good effects resulting from the superintendence of respectable females, she urges the importance of lady-visitors to the female-wards of hospitals and infirmaries. In short, this pamphlet is replete with excellent advice on the subjects to which it relates, and is an evidence equally of the sound judgment and the Christian benevolence of the writer.

Art. 38. *Reflections on the Education of the Poor*, submitted particularly to the Consideration of the Landholders and principal Manufacturers. 8vo. pp. 52. Rivingtons, &c. 1815.

Lord Bacon has said, and the maxim has been often repeated, that "knowledge is power : " he might have added, also, knowledge is virtue, since

since 'to the education of the child may generally be ascribed the virtuous habits of the man.' If, therefore, we are desirous of increasing the stock of public morality, we must increase that of public education. — The sensible author of these reflections has well illustrated and enforced this important truth ; and he has combated with much ability the objections which some persons have urged against the modern system for the universal education of the poor. It is surprizing to us that any clergymen should be found in this class of objectors, because their public discourses cannot be understood by those who have no knowlege of the Scriptures. We should rejoice to see the poor in every parish of England bringing their Bibles to church with them, as the poor do in Scotland, and turning to the text as soon as it is named by the minister : — but, to be able to do this, they must be taught to read ; and, by affording them this ability, we take the most effectual means of imbuing them with good principles, and rendering them useful instead of pernicious members of society. To the objection offered by some persons against teaching the poor to read, — that we thus give them an opportunity of reading bad books, — the author very properly replies that this is the old foolish argument *ex abusu in usum* ; adding that 'it should ever be remembered, that to knowlege belongs the peculiar power of rectifying the errors which may occasionally result from its misapplication.'

Among the advantages which are likely to result from the education of the poor, the author specifies the following : — that it is calculated to introduce among their children a variety of useful and excellent habits ; — that it will powerfully strengthen the bond of union between parents and children ; — and that it will unite the lower orders in a parish to each other, and attach them to their superiors. The great landed proprietors are invited to promote schools for national education on their estates ; and manufacturers, who congregate the poor in masses, and thus contribute to their early depravity and sickness, are exhorted to counteract this much deplored evil by generously obviating the cupidity of parents while they consult the good of the working children. It is recommended to head-manufacturers to continue the same wages to the children, but to allow them two hours in a day to be taken from their work, and spent in receiving education ; — making such arrangements throughout the different manufactories, that a fresh set of scholars may succeed each other at the same school every two hours. If a plan of this nature could be adopted in our manufacturing towns, how great would be the change in the appearance and in the morals of the poor ! ' Instead of meeting every where among them those pale, emaciated, and sickly forms, we should find a race of active, robust, and healthy tradesmen.'

The proper feeling here displayed on the subject proposed is highly creditable to the heart of the writer ; and we trust that the reflections with which he has favoured the public will obtain that attention which they so highly deserve.

Art. 39. *A Proposal for improving the System of Friendly Societies, or of Poor Assurance Offices ; and, by increasing their Funds, rendering, in Process of Time, on the Principle of Accumulation,*
all

all parochial Taxation for the Relief of the Poor unnecessary. Most respectfully submitted to the Landed Interest of that Part of the United Kingdom, called England. By Jerome Count de Salis, of the Holy Roman Empire, F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 100. Reynolds. 1814.

What person of sense and humanity, who adverts to the enormous amount of the poor-rates, (nearly 7,000,000*l.* per annum,) to their general mismanagement, and to the ineffectual relief which they afford those individuals for whose benefit they are levied, can help wishing that some substitute could be devised for this oppressive parochial tax? Count de Salis is fully acquainted with the defects of our poor-laws; and the object of his pamphlet is to recommend a plan, on the principle of the friendly societies, which he is persuaded would obviate all the evils of our present method of providing for the poor;—a plan which would remove the pressure of our parochial burdens, while it rendered the poor more independent and comfortable. Thoroughly aware, also, of the objections which would be made to its universal adoption, he calls on the Legislature to lend its aid: but, we fear that, while our Government is so deeply involved in war and taxation, it will not find time for attending to a revisal of our poor-laws.

Count de Salis is apprized of the inconvenience and unnecessary expence which attach to the meetings of the members of friendly societies at public houses, where drinking is encouraged, and where the expence of the feast is defrayed out of the fund, and thus diminishes the amount of the subscriptions. To obviate this evil, he prefers the establishment of *Poor Assurance Offices*, where the subscriptions of the members are to be regularly paid, without the necessity of crowded associations; and every quarter of the district to which such an office shall belong shall be compelled by law to subscribe to them.—It cannot be expected of us to enter into all the particulars of this plan, or to give the tables of monthly payments according to the ages of admission, and the benefits which are to be extended to the subscribing members: but the outline, we must say, seems to be sketched with judgment; and we are persuaded that, if it could be carried into execution, under the sanction of parliament, it would be attended with extensively good effects. Such a scheme, adopted in a spirited manner, would, as Sir John Sinclair observes, immortalize any minister: but, alas! a prime-minister is now too much occupied to seek immortality by means of this nature.

Hints are subjoined for the better management of parishes and parochial affairs; in which, among other improvements, the Count recommends 'that parochial workhouses be abolished, and that the parish officers should contract with inhabitants of the parish to board and clothe the poor and infirm, who would be otherwise in the workhouse; and it would be particularly desirable if they were to place them with their friends and relations, under the inspection of some respectable members of the parochial or district committee; and as persons in a state of sickness can never be so comfortably or economically placed as in an hospital or infirmary, all parishes or incorporated districts should subscribe to some such institution, to which sick

sick members of Friendly Societies or Poor Assurance Offices, if their state would admit of their removal, ought to be sent, and a proportion of the weekly payment due to the sick member of the Friendly Society or Poor Assurance Office should be paid to the directors of the hospital or infirmary, according as his case requires more care or attention, the remainder to be applied to the use of the family of such sick individual.'

A watchful eye must be extended to the poor, if we wish to keep this numerous class in order, and this writer proposes an expeditious method of getting rid of the disorderly. Vagabonds, who could not find employment in Great Britain, he would send to Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, or Canada: but we suspect that such an exportation would occupy more ships than the Count calculates. Suggestions are also given for regulating the price of labour, so that the poor may by their earnings be able to maintain themselves. In short, the whole of this pamphlet displays the benevolence and good intentions of the author, though we fear that few of his plans will be submitted to the test of experiment.

Art. 40. *Free Thoughts upon Methodists, Actors, and the Influence of the Stage*; with an introductory Letter to Mrs. ———, of ——— Castle, Glamorganshire, upon the Origin of the Drama, &c. &c. &c. By Robert Mansel, of the Theatres Royal, York and Hull. — Likewise a Discourse on the Lawfulness and Unlawfulness of Plays; written by the learned Father Caffaro, Divinity Professor at Paris. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

On Mr. Mansel's merits as a dramatic performer we have had no opportunity of deciding: but we hope that he plays his part better as an actor than as an author, because in the latter character he appears to no great advantage. His Latin quotations are miserably incorrect; and his English phraseology, though he seems proud of its display, is not likely to gain him many plaudits. He commences with making 'reflection *cast back a retrospective glance*;' and in another place we find him 'enucleating an objection.' The poor Methodists are assailed with as much coarseness as they themselves ever employed in reprobating the stage and stage-players; 'a good homely cudgel,' he tells them, 'being the most respectable *epithet* he can venture to bestow.' With the nameless lady to whom he first addresses himself, he is so enraptured, that he assures her that 'the most pleasing and essential assistance he can possibly devise is by mentally enjoying her society during his pursuit;' yet this mental society has not had the effect which it ought to have produced; since he has not been sufficiently decorous in preparing a letter designed for a respectable lady's eye. — We allow Mr. Mansel to be jealous for the stage, and to be hurt by the illiberal invectives cast on his profession: but he does not effectually rebut them by calling the Methodists '*demi-maniacs*,' '*pie bald* sectaries,' and 'the brawling sons of zeal and bigotry.' Another mode ought to have been adopted by this author; who has, in fact, subjected himself to the charge of being guilty of the same fault which he ascribes to the Methodists. He wishes it to be understood that he contends only for '*a well-regulated theatre*:' though he does
not

not assert that our theatres *are* well regulated: he knows the contrary:—but, to *turn the tables* on the Methodists, he contends that players as a body are as moral as the Methodists, including the whole sect. He even goes farther: he is not satisfied with presenting a list of actors on the stage who have sustained honourable characters, but he exults in stating that ‘no instance is on record of a stage-player suffering a shameful and ignominious death;’ though Methodist preachers cannot say the same of their body; the preacher Wheatley, the unworthy contemporary of the two Wesleys, having suffered death on the gallows.

Father Caffaro’s letter takes a dispassionate view of the subject of which it professes to treat, and deserves the consideration of those who are violent in their abuse of the stage: but Mr. M.’s preface and appendix to this letter are not written in the same style. Towards the conclusion, the object of this writer’s address peeps out; and he ‘*modestly* expresses a wish that Government would encourage the establishment of country-theatricals on a respectable footing, by framing an act to incorporate its members.’ If the Methodists run into one extreme in their general abuse of the stage, he surely errs in the opposite extreme in his eulogy of it: theatres are not the schools of morality which he would have us believe, and they are frequented in every place for amusement rather than for improvement.

Art. 41. *Local and literary Account of Leamington, Warwick, Stratford, Coventry, Kenilworth, Hagley, the Leasowes, Birmingham, and the surrounding Country.* With Remarks on the Prospect of Universal Peace. A new and enlarged Edition, with some Engravings. By Mr. Pratt, Author of the *Gleanings*, &c. &c. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1814.

Leamington Spa, in Warwickshire, having of late grown into a place of fashionable resort for invalids and idlers, it may be intitled, like other places of the same class, to be distinguished by what is commonly called a *Guide*, containing a description of the spot itself, and of every object worth notice for some miles round. By good luck, Leamington found a literary *ciceroni* in our pleasant, chatty old friend Mr. Pratt, who exerted himself in behalf of this new watering-place by apparently a last literary effort, he having since quitted this scene of mortal toil. In a topographical book, we could have dispensed with his remarks on politics, and his strictures on the conduct of the once great, but now little Emperor: but Mr. Pratt was a *gleaner* by profession, and picked up all that came in his way. We think that, in the present instance, he was more discursive and miscellaneous than the case required: but it is the reader’s fault if, out of such a variety of articles, he cannot select something to amuse him.

‘Leamington Priors is so called to distinguish it from Leamington Hastings, and from its situation on the Leam. That river, according to the good old historian of the country, “having its head in Northamptonshire, (about Braunston and Daventrie,) entereth Warwickshire, between Wolfhamcote and Willoughby. The etymologie appears to be derived from a Greek word, which signifieth a pool or lake.” This is not improbable, as the Leam has some standing lakes or ponds, *like* several artificial rivers in Cambridgeshire, anciently cut to

to drain the fens, all bearing the name of Leame; as New Leame, Watersey Leame, and Morton's Leame; each of which has a muddy channel, the water working through a dull and slow passage.' —

'Until the time of Dr. Lamb's analysis, in 1797, observes Dr. Middleton, in a very estimable pamphlet, which deserves the public attention, "neither the village of Leamington Priors, nor the mineral springs, for which it is now so deservedly famous, were either much known, or much noticed." —

"Since that time, the place has been constantly increasing; and the excellent effects produced by the waters in many chronic disorders, in plethoric habits, in diseases of the skin, and in visceral obstructions, particularly such as have arisen from a residence in hot climates, or from too great indulgence in the pleasures of wine and the table, have stamped them with the highest value, amongst that class of natural medicines to which they so eminently belong.

"Instead of an insignificant village, known only to a few invalids, who, from the benefits they received from the waters, were contented to put up with any accommodation, Leamington is now become the resort of rank, elegance, and fashion; spacious buildings are constructed, both for hot and cold bathing; the public spring is inclosed in a handsome stone edifice, for the accommodation of those who drink the waters; a grand, extensive, and new range of houses has been erected, fit for the reception of people of the first distinction, and every convenience that health or sickness can require, is amply provided. From the anxiety of the sick, and from the eager attention, and persevering efforts of speculative individuals, many new springs have been discovered; and instead of one solitary fountain, there are now no less than seven;" — and several more, since the above account was written.'

The accommodations of the village of Leamington are thus advertised:

'There are few villages in the kingdom where more natural advantages, or, to use the far-famed word of Brown, greater capabilities of uniting their powers, are to be found than in Leamington and its neighbourhood. The new assembly-room, on a very magnificent design, including all the contingent accommodations such an edifice can supply, has been some time ready for the public. Also a new range of baths on a plan of great magnificence, with a pump-room, appropriate music-room, &c. &c. &c. not inferior to the ball and pump-room of the first pleasure-city in Great Britain — Both may certainly be so denominated. New houses, new hotels, new roads, new walks, and new streets have likewise been completed.'

The notices of the places mentioned in the title, and of others of less importance, augment the interest of this publication; and if it were embellished with a plan of Leamington, and other engravings, its value would be increased: but, though mention is made of some decorations of this kind, the copy which we have inspected contains only the solitary view of an old church, which scarcely merited the distinction of having its picture drawn. A view of the village, including the Spa, would have been of more value.

S I N G L E S E R M O N S.

Art. 42. Preached in the Parish Church of Tewkesbury, June 20. 1813, for the Benefit of the School established in that Borough, (on the System of the Rev. Dr. Bell,) to co-operate with "The National Society for promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church." By John Keysall, M.A. F.S.A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

No rational objections can be urged against the religious education of the poor, and it is natural for every church to be anxious to conduct this education on its own principles. Mr. Keysall neatly displays the singular facility with which the new plan is conducted, as well as the benefits which result from it, and is very solicitous that a *national education* should be conformable to the principles of the national religion. His zeal in rescuing the children of poverty from the complicated evils of ignorance and guilt is manifest throughout this discourse, and from his allotment of the whole profits arising from its sale, he having himself defrayed the expence of printing, to the benefit of the charity in behalf of which he so ably pleads.

Art. 43. *An Inquiry into the Antiquity of the Sabbath, chiefly with Reference to the Opinion of Dr. Paley.* Preached at the Visitation of the Right Rev. George Tomline, D.D. F.R.S., Lord Bishop of Lincoln, held at Caistor, June 29. 1812. By William Cooper, B.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1814.

The opinion of Dr. Paley, and others, (for it is not peculiar to him,) respecting the commencement of the Jewish Sabbath, is by no means invalidated by the remarks of this preacher, who does not appear to us to have at all succeeded in his strictures. We cannot detail the arguments which may be adduced in support of Dr. Paley's hypothesis: but we shall briefly observe that an attentive consideration of the history relative to the Sabbath, in Exod. xvi., will induce the reader to conclude that this institution was then a *novelty* to the Israelites. The caution against gathering the manna on the seventh day, the surprize of the rulers on receiving the order, and the inattention of some of the people to it, are all indications of the actual commencement of the Sabbath at this period; and it is easier to suppose that the Jewish historian (Gen. ii. 3.) employs a *prolepsis* in his then mention of the Sabbath, than to obviate the difficulties which press on the supposition that the Sabbath was kept in Paradise; because, had this been the case, it would be strange that no subsequent notice is taken of it through the long period of 2,500 years. Mr. C. would refer the institution of the Sabbath to the period of the creation, on account of the division of months into weeks: but how could a lunar month of 28 days be more naturally divided? Again, he would have us believe that the fourth commandment bears marks of the republication of a former injunction; for he adds that "Remember the *Sabbath day*," &c. would not have been intelligible, if a Sabbath had not been already instituted. If (he says) the command had been wholly new, the language of it would perhaps rather have been, "Remember the *seventh day* to keep it holy."—The injunction does in fact begin with mentioning the specific day which was to be kept holy, viz. *the seventh*, and then it proceeds to call it *the Sabbath*. As the com-

mandment stands in our English Bibles, the cart is put before the horse. Dr. Geddes was not aware of this error when he translated *Exod. xx.*: but, in the corresponding place in *Deut. v.*, he thus renders the passage, "Be mindful of *the seventh day*, so as to keep it holy." This is as it ought to be.—The remark of Mr. C. (p. 19.) on the origin of the Christian Sabbath is also open to animadversion; where he makes the observance of the first day of the week to have arisen 'from the *choice* of the first preachers of the new religion, since the [Jewish] Sabbath, as commemorative of the creation, had *lost much of its importance*.' We cannot better close this article than by urging the preacher to review the whole matter of his discourse.

CORRESPONDENCE.

' *To the Editor of the Monthly Review.*

' Sir,

' The expression *solida mens* in Horace denotes, as you observe, "a firm determination;" and having for many years, in the course of teaching, uniformly so rendered it, the error surprises me. The authority of Horace, therefore, I ought not to have quoted. I must own, indeed, that notwithstanding the opinion of Ainsworth, Morell, and some other lexicographers, who render "a solid judgment" by *solida mens*, I am somewhat doubtful, whether the Latin expression is used by any classic in this sense.

' Much gratified by the liberal praise, of which the "Gymnasium" has been deemed worthy by so respectable a journal as the Monthly Review,

' I am, Sir,

' Greenwich,
20th June, 1815.'

' Your most Obedient,

' ALEX. CROMBIE.'

Verax writes to us on the subject of the reputed death of Pichegru by order of Bonaparte, and calls on us for our authority in admitting, in one of the articles of our last Appendix, this supposed fact as true. We have neither authority to quote in proof of this allegation, beyond the current opinion of the times, nor ground for demurring to it; nor can we receive the statement of an anonymous correspondent as disproving it. *Verax* says that he was 'assured by a disinterested inhabitant, within two doors of the house in which the General died, that no doubt could remain that he really perished by his own hands, and that the story of the Mameluke assassins sent by Napoleon was a gross fabrication invented soon after the transaction.' Our Correspondent wishes us to print this statement, which he says may 'have some influence in eliciting information on this subject, since your journal, as I observed in the shops at Ghent, Brussels, and Rouen, makes regular visits to the Continent;' and we can have no objection to assist in obtaining the truth on this controverted question, whichever way it may tend.

☞ The APPENDIX to the last Volume of the M.R. was published on the first of June, with the Number for May.

. In the Rev. for May, p. 17. l. 8. put only a colon after 'enforced.' — P. 20. l. 1. for 'however,' r. *who were the, &c.*



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1815.

ART. I. *Travels to the Source of the Missouri River, and across the American Continent, to the Pacific Ocean.* Performed by Order of the Government of the United States, in the Years 1804, 1805, and 1806. By Captains Lewis and Clarke. Published from the official Report, and illustrated by a Map of the Route, and other Maps. 4to. pp. 687. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

IT will be in the recollection of most of our readers that Bonaparte, when in 1803 his schemes of aggrandizement were unexpectedly opposed by our assuming an hostile attitude, deemed it proper to relinquish Louisiana for a pecuniary consideration to the United States; and it became accordingly an important consideration with the American government to obtain an accurate knowledge of the new territory, with a view to matters of commerce and to eventual colonization. We have already noticed (M. R. July, 1813,) the adventurous expeditions of Mr. Pike, a young officer of the greatest promise, who afterward became one of the many victims to the unnatural war lately waged between the two countries. His missions had a twofold object, to explore in the first instance the Upper Mississippi, and afterward the interior of Louisiana along the course of the rivers Osage and Arkansas. Extensive as were these surveys, the expedition related in the volume before us was of still greater magnitude; being appointed for the purpose of exploring not only the Missouri from its mouth to its source, but also the vast and dreary range of mountains which form the highest land in the centre of that part of the American Continent, and afterward of descending the rivers which roll westward to the Pacific Ocean. The superficial extent of land and water to be thus traversed could not, making allowance for the necessary circuits, be less, in going and coming, than nine thousand miles. To accomplish this formidable journey, the American government made choice of the Captains Lewis and Clarke, officers in their army, and the former being also private secretary to the President, Mr. Jefferson. Under their command, was placed a party composed of sol-

diers and boat-men, to the number in all of forty-two, and it is the result of their labours that we have now to communicate to our readers.

Not often does it fall to the lot of reviewers to make a report on a volume of such interest as the present may boast. Instead of the travels of a private individual, deficient naturally in the means necessary to make extensive observations, and actuated perhaps by motives of personal interest, we have here the result of a survey performed at the expence of government, and conducted with the most liberal views. Nothing, indeed, could be more judicious than the choice of the commanders, or the selection of the privates appointed to accompany them to the opposite shore of the American Continent, through a scene of toil and privation and under circumstances in which, without the cordial attachment of their followers, the authority of commanders would have become unavailing. The journal of Captains Lewis and Clarke bears the clearest marks of impartiality, and of an anxiety to obtain the most accurate information; their conclusions are not biassed by any previous theory; nor were their efforts circumscribed by any want either of time or of the means of extending their observations. * Under these circumstances, we are disposed to allot a more than usual space to an analysis of the narrative of this expedition. It lasted nearly two years and a half; and our account of it may, with propriety, be divided into three distinct heads.

I. Progress of the Expedition to the Central, or as they are called by the Indians, the Rocky Mountains.

II. Passage across the Rocky Mountains, and Progress to the Pacific.

III. Journey homeward.

Progress up the Missouri. — The party proceeded on their voyage in three boats, and set out from the village of St. Louis, at the conflux of the Missouri and Mississippi, on the 14th of May 1804. Although the latter gives its name to the united streams, the former is by far the longer and more powerful river. Its width varies very considerably, not so much from difference in its volume, because the effect of evaporation counteracts in a great degree the ample additions made to it by tributary streams, but in consequence of the nature of the adjacent ground, and the very different degree of resistance which is opposed to its current by a hard or a soft soil. The first great river that an upward voyager observes to fall into

* A journal of this expedition, by Patrick Gass, one of the persons engaged in it, was briefly announced in our Review for November 1810, Vol. lxiii. p. 328.

the Missouri is the Osage, at the influx of which the former is about nine hundred yards across. Higher up, in a part where its waters are spread, the breadth of the Missouri is double; and at a cliff called the Arrow Rock, this mighty flood is compressed within a bed of two hundred yards, and is forced to find in depth the space which is denied to it in width. The season being favourable, and the boats well manned, the difficulties of navigating against the stream were combated, for a great way up, without any other serious accident than the death of one of the serjeants, and the sickness of several of the men in consequence of an imprudent use of the water in situations in which it was impregnated by unhealthy substances.

‘ August 22. The bluffs or hills which reach the river at this place, on the south, contain alum, copperas, cobalt which had the appearance of soft isinglass, pyrites, and sand-stone, the two first very pure. — Captain Lewis, in proving the quality of some of the substances in the first cliff, was considerably injured by the fumes and taste of the cobalt, and took some strong medicine to relieve him from its effects. The appearance of these mineral substances enables us to account for disorders of the stomach, with which the party had been affected since they left the river Sioux. We had been in the habit of dipping up the water of the river inadvertently and making use of it, till, on examination, the sickness was thought to proceed from a scum covering the surface of the water along the southern shore, and which, as we now discovered, proceeded from these bluffs. The men had been ordered, before we reached the bluffs, to agitate the water, so as to disperse the scum, and take the water, not at the surface, but at some depth. The consequence was, that these disorders ceased: the biles, too, which had afflicted the men, were not observed beyond the Sioux river. In order to supply the place of Serjeant Floyd, we permitted the men to name three persons, and Patrick Gass having the greatest number of votes was made a serjeant.’

The Indians are in general a contemptible enemy in the eye of civilized warriors, their numbers being commonly small, and their weapons much inferior to ours: but the Sioux along the shores of the Mississippi are not to be despised, being a nation (or, to speak more properly, a tribe) of considerable numbers, and addicted to the most mischievous habits. The martial array of the expedition prevented these savages from venturing to interfere with it for some time: but, after it had reached the division of the tribe known by the name of Tetons, the vicinity of additional numbers inspired the Chiefs with bolder projects.

‘ September 25. The morning was fine, and the wind continued from the south-east. We raised a flagstaff and an awning, under which we assembled at twelve o’clock, with all the party parading under arms. The chiefs and warriors from the camp two miles up

the river, met us, about fifty or sixty in number, and after smoking delivered them a speech.—After this we went through the ceremony of acknowledging the chiefs, by giving to the grand chief a medal, a flag of the United States, a laced uniform coat, a cocked hat and feather: to the two other chiefs a medal and some small presents; and to two warriors of consideration certificates.—We then invited the chiefs on board, and showed them the boat, the airgun, and such curiosities as we thought might amuse them: in this we succeeded too well; for after giving them a quarter of a glass of whiskey, which they seemed to like very much, and sucked the bottle, it was with much difficulty that we could get rid of them. They at last accompanied Captain Clarke on shore in a perioque with five men; but it seems they had formed a design to stop us; for no sooner had the party landed than three of the Indians seized the cable of the perioque, and one of the soldiers of the chief put his arm round the mast: the second chief who affected intoxication, then said, that we should not go on, that they had not received presents enough from us: Captain Clarke told him that he would not be prevented from going on; that we were not squaws, but warriors; that we were sent by our great father, who could in a moment exterminate them: the chief replied, that he too had warriors, and was proceeding to offer personal violence to Captain Clarke, who immediately drew his sword, and made a signal to the boat to prepare for action. The Indians who surrounded him drew their arrows from their quivers and were bending their bows, when the swivel in the boat was instantly pointed towards them, and twelve of our most determined men jumped into the perioque and joined Captain Clarke. This movement made an impression on them, for the grand chief ordered the young men away from the perioque, and they withdrew and held a short council with the warriors. Being unwilling to irritate them, Captain Clarke then went forward and offered his hand to the first and second chiefs, who refused to take it. He then turned from them and got into the perioque, but had not gone more than ten paces when both the chiefs and two of the warriors waded in after him, and he brought them on board.—

‘ September 26. Our conduct yesterday seemed to have inspired the Indians with fear of us, and as we were desirous of cultivating their acquaintance, we complied with their wish that we should give them an opportunity of treating us well, and also suffer their squaws and children to see us and our boat, which would be perfectly new to them. Accordingly, after passing at one and a half mile a small willow island and several sandbars, we came to on the south side, where a crowd of men, women, and children were waiting to receive us. Captain Lewis went on shore and remained several hours, and observing that their disposition was friendly, we resolved to remain during the night to a dance, which they were preparing for us.—The orchestra was composed of about ten men, who played on a sort of tambourin, formed of skin stretched across a hoop; and made a jingling noise with a long stick to which the hoofs of deer and goats were hung; the third instrument was a small skin bag with pebbles in it: these, with five or six young men for the vocal part, made up the

the band. The women then came forward highly decorated ; some with poles in their hands, on which were hung the scalps of their enemies ; others with guns, spears, or different trophies, taken in war by their husbands, brothers, or connections. Having arranged themselves in two columns, one on each side of the fire, as soon as the music began they danced towards each other till they met in the centre, when the rattles were shaken, and they all shouted and returned back to their places. They have no step, but shuffle along the ground ; nor does the music appear to be any thing more than a confusion of noises, distinguished only by hard or gentle blows upon the buffaloe skin : the song is perfectly extemporaneous. In the pauses of the dance, any man of the company comes forward and recites, in a sort of low guttural tone, some little story or incident, which is either martial or ludicrous ; or, as was the case this evening, voluptuous and indecent ; this is taken up by the orchestra and the dancers, who repeat it in a higher strain and dance to it. Sometimes they alternate ; the orchestra first performing, and when it ceases, the women raise their voices and make a music more agreeable, that is, less intolerable than that of the musicians. The dances of the men, which are always separate from the women, are conducted very nearly in the same way, except that the men jump up and down instead of shuffling ; and in the war dances the recitations are all of a military cast. The harmony of the entertainment had nearly been disturbed by one of the musicians, who thinking he had not received a due share of the tobacco we had distributed during the evening, put himself into a passion, broke one of the drums, threw two of them into the fire, and left the band. They were taken out of the fire : and a buffaloe robe held in one hand and beaten with the other, by several of the company, supplied the place of the lost drum or tambourin.'—

‘ The tribe which we this day saw are a part of the great Sioux nation, and are known by the name of the Teton Okandandas : they are about two hundred men in number, and their chief residence is on both sides of the Missouri, between the Chayenne and Teton rivers. In their persons they are rather ugly and ill made, their legs and arms being too small, their cheek-bones high, and their eyes projecting. The females, with the same character of form, are more handsome ; and both sexes appear cheerful and sprightly ; but in our intercourse with them we discovered that they were cunning and vicious.’—

‘ While on shore to-day we witnessed a quarrel between two squaws, which appeared to be growing every moment more boisterous, when a man came forward, at whose approach every one seemed terrified and ran. He took the squaws, and without any ceremony whipped them severely. On inquiring into the nature of such summary justice, we learnt that this man was an officer well known to this and many other tribes. His duty is to keep the peace, and the whole interior police of the village is confided to two or three of these officers, who are named by the chief and remain in power some days, at least till the chief appoints a successor ; they seem to be a sort of constable or sentinel, since they are always on the watch to keep tranquillity during the day, and guarding the camp in the night. The short duration of their office is compensated by its

authority : his power is supreme, and in the suppression of any riot or disturbance no resistance to him is suffered.'

Leaving these inhospitable wanderers, the expedition held its course northward to the district inhabited by the Ricaras, a tribe of very different habits. Here, as among most Indians, the drudgery of the field and the labour of procuring subsistence in every way, except by hunting, fall on the women : but both sexes discover a considerable share of kindness to strangers. They live in lodges of thirty or forty feet in diameter, formed by placing forked posts about six feet high round the circumference of a circle ; these posts are joined by poles extending from one fork to another ; in the centre are four higher forks connected together by beams ; and in the middle of these is a vacancy for the smoke. The frame of the building is covered with willow-branches and grass, over which is thrown a quantity of mud or clay ; so that these edifices, rude as they apparently are, possess sufficient warmth to withstand the intensity of their dreadful winter. — The uncomfortable life of the Indians, the decrease of numbers to which they are exposed from their endless wars with each other, and their ignorance of the useful arts, are strikingly exemplified in the case of the Mandans, a tribe living to the northward of the Ricaras.

‘ Within the recollection of living witnesses, the Mandans were settled forty years ago in nine villages, the ruins of which we passed about eighty miles below, and situated seven on the west and two on the east side of the Missouri. The two latter finding themselves wasting away before the small-pox and the Sioux, united into one village, and moved up the river opposite to the Ricaras. The same causes reduced the remaining seven to five villages, till at length they emigrated in a body to the Ricara nation, where they formed themselves into two villages, and joined those of their countrymen who had gone before them. In their new residence they were still insecure, and at length the three villages ascended the Missouri to their present position. The two who had emigrated together still settled in the two villages on the north-west side of the Missouri, while the single village took a position on the south-east side. In this situation they were found by those who visited them in 1796 ; since which the two villages have united into one. They are now in two villages, one on the south-east of the Missouri, the other on the opposite side, and at the distance of three miles across. The first, in an open plain, contains about forty or fifty lodges, built in the same way as those of the Ricaras ; the second, the same number, and both may raise about three hundred and fifty men.’

The following accident occurred a few nights after the party arrived among the Mandans :

‘ In the evening the prairie took fire, either by accident or design, and burned with great fury, the whole plain being enveloped in flames ; so rapid was its progress that a man and woman were burnt to death before they could reach a place of safety ; another man with his wife and child were much burnt, and several other persons narrowly escaped destruction. Among the rest a boy of the half white breed escaped unhurt in the midst of the flames ; his safety was ascribed to the great medicine spirit, who had preserved him on account of his being white. But a much more natural cause was the presence of mind of his mother, who, seeing no hopes of carrying off her son, threw him on the ground, and, covering him with the fresh hide of a buffalo, escaped herself from the flames ; as soon as the fire had passed, she returned and found him untouched, the skin having prevented the flame from reaching the grass on which he lay.’

In this remote quarter, the Indians had hitherto had little intercourse with any civilized visitors except the British fur-traders. Captain Clarke happened to have with him an African named York, whose jet black skin excited the greatest surprize among these northern savages : the children were accustomed to follow him constantly, and to run off with terror if he chanced to turn towards them ; and even the leading men had difficulty in believing that there could be human beings of such a complexion.

After the party had proceeded up the river about 1600 miles, the approach of winter made it necessary to look out for comfortable quarters, and a camp was accordingly chosen in the beginning of November in No. lat. 47°. 21'. Trees were felled for building the cabins ; provisions were procured, according to the custom in American expeditions, by hunting-excursions in the neighbourhood ; and great care was taken to protect the men from the severity of the cold, which in that region prevails in a degree that to an European appears hardly credible. In the journal kept by Captains Lewis and Clarke, the thermometer is repeatedly noted in the month of December at 20, 22, 24, and 30° below 0, and on some occasions at 38, 40, 42, and even 45° below 0. The Indians support this extreme cold in a surprizing manner, and sleep on the snow without experiencing much inconvenience.

‘ January 9. The weather is cold, the thermometer at sunrise 21° below 0. Kagohami breakfasted with us, and Captain Clarke with three or four men accompanied him and a party of Indians to hunt, in which they were so fortunate as to kill a number of buffaloes : but they were incommoded by snow, by high and squally winds, and by extreme cold : several of the Indians came to the fort nearly frozen, others are missing, and we are uneasy, for one of our men, who was separated from the rest during the chase, has not returned,

In the morning, (10th,) however, he came back just as we were sending out five men in search of him. The night had been excessively cold, and this morning at sunrise the mercury stood at 40° below 0, or 72 below the freezing point. He had, however, made a fire and kept himself tolerably warm. A young Indian, about thirteen years of age, also came in soon after. His father, who came last night to inquire after him very anxiously, had sent him in the afternoon to the fort: he was overtaken by the night, and was obliged to sleep on the snow with no covering except a pair of antelope skin moccasins and leggings, and a buffaloe robe: his feet being frozen, we put them into cold water, and gave him every attention in our power. About the same time an Indian who had also been missing returned to the fort, and although his dress was very thin, and he had slept on the snow without a fire, he had not suffered the slightest inconvenience. We have indeed observed that these Indians support the rigours of the season in a way which we had hitherto thought impossible.'

The great supply of food for the party consisted in buffaloes, who range the wilds of this region of America in herds of great extent:

' Captain Clarke with fifteen men went out and found the Indians engaged in killing the buffaloe: the hunters mounted on horseback and armed with bows and arrows encircle the herd, and gradually drive them into a plain or an open place fit for the movements of horse; they then ride in among them, and singling out a buffaloe, a female being preferred, go as close as possible and wound her with arrows till they think they have given the mortal stroke; when they pursue another till the quiver is exhausted; if, which rarely happens, the wounded buffaloe attacks the hunter, he evades his blow by the agility of his horse, which is trained for the combat with great dexterity. When they have killed the requisite number, they collect their game, and the squaws and attendants come up from the rear, and skin and dress the animals. Captain Clarke killed ten buffaloes, of which only five were brought to the fort, the rest which could not be conveyed home being seized by the Indians, among whom the custom is that whenever a buffaloe is found dead without an arrow, or any particular mark, he is the property of the finder; so that often a hunter secures scarcely any of the game he kills, if the arrow happens to fall off: whatever is left out at night falls to the share of the wolves, who are the constant and numerous attendants of the buffaloe.'

Of the surprising numbers of these animals, some idea may be formed from the following passages in a subsequent part of the journal. On the banks of the river Yellow Stone, Captain Clarke remarks:

' The buffaloes now appear in vast numbers. A herd happened to be on their way across the river. Such was the multitude of these animals, that although the river, including an island, over which they passed, was a mile in length, the herd stretched as thick as they could swim, completely from one side to the other, and the party was obliged

obliged to stop for an hour. They consoled themselves for the delay by killing four of the herd, and then proceeded till at the distance of forty-five miles they reached an island, below which two other herds of buffaloes, as numerous as the first, soon after crossed the river.'

In that part of the course of the Missouri which is inhabited by the Sioux, we find these animals equally abundant :

' The day was spent in hunting along the river ; so that we did not advance more than twenty miles ; but with all our efforts we were unable to kill either a mule-deer or an antelope, though we procured the common deer, a porcupine, and some buffaloes. These last animals are now so numerous that from an eminence we discovered more than we had ever seen before, at one time ; and if it be not impossible to calculate the moving multitude, which darkened the whole plains, we are convinced that twenty thousand would be no exaggerated number. With regard to game in general, we observe that the greatest quantity of wild animals are usually found in the country lying between two nations at war.'

Five months having been passed in winter-quarters, the melting of the ice in the Missouri enabled the party to renew their voyage on the 7th of April 1805 : but, before their departure, a small detachment was sent back to the American government with the result of their observations up to this time, consisting chiefly in sketches of the course of the river, and remarks on the adjacent country and inhabitants, with specimens of the most curious plants and minerals. Captain Lewis addressed on this occasion a letter to Mr. Jefferson, from which the following are extracts :

' 7th April, 1805. I have sent a journal kept by one of the serjeants to Captain Stoddard, my agent at St. Louis, in order, as much as possible, to multiply the chances of saving something. We have encouraged our men to keep journals, and seven of them do, to whom, in this respect, we give every assistance in our power.—By reference to the muster-rolls forwarded to the war-department, you will see the state of the party ; in addition to which, we have two interpreters, one negro man, servant to Captain Clarke, one Indian woman, wife to one of the interpreters, and a Mandan man, whom we take with a view to restore peace between the Snake Indians, and those in this neighbourhood ; amounting, in total with ourselves, to thirty-three persons. By means of the interpreters and Indians, we shall be enabled to converse with all the Indians that we shall probably meet with on the Missouri.—From this place we shall send the barge and crew early to-morrow morning, with orders to proceed as expeditiously as possible to St. Louis ; by her we send our despatches, which I trust will get safe to hand. Her crew consists of ten able bodied men, well armed, and provided with a sufficient stock of provisions to last them to St. Louis. I have but little doubt but they will be fired on by the Sioux ; but they have pledged themselves to

us that they will not yield while there is a man of them living. Our baggage is all embarked on board six small canoes, and two pirogues; we shall set out at the same moment that we despatch the barge.—As our vessels are now small, and the current of the river much more moderate, we calculate upon travelling at the rate of 20 or 25 miles per day, as far as the Falls of the Missouri. Beyond this point, or the first range of rocky mountains, situated about 100 miles further, any calculation with respect to our daily progress can be little more than bare conjecture.—Since our arrival at this place, we have subsisted principally on meat, with which our guns have supplied us amply, and have thus been enabled to reserve the parched meal, portable soup, and a considerable proportion of pork and flour, which we had intended for the more difficult parts of our voyage. If Indian information can be credited, the vast quantity of game, with which the country abounds through which we are to pass, leaves us but little to apprehend from the want of food.—I can see no material or probable obstruction to our progress, and entertain, therefore, the most sanguine hopes of complete success. As to myself, individually, I never enjoyed a more perfect state of good health than I have since we commenced our voyage. My inestimable friend and companion, Captain Clarke, has also enjoyed good health generally. At this moment every individual of the party is in good health and excellent spirits, zealously attached to the enterprize, and anxious to proceed; not a whisper of discontent or murmur is to be heard among them; but all in unison act with the most perfect harmony. With such men I have every thing to hope.'

The barge conveying these collections had a speedy passage down the Missouri, and brought to the United States the only account of the expedition which was received before its return; the immense distance, to which the party afterward proceeded, taking them entirely out of the way of communication with home.—Having embarked on board of canoes as more easy of navigation, the expedition, reduced by the return of the detachment to thirty-three persons, went forwards, to use an Indian phrase, towards the setting Sun, the Missouri running in its upper course not from north to south but from west to east. Numbers of rivers were observed to fall into it on each side, of which by much the largest was the *Rocbe jaune*, or Yellow Stone; a river that shall be more particularly noticed in the account of the homeward journey. The rate at which Captain Lewis had calculated on proceeding did not prove altogether correct, the lightness of their vessels obliging them frequently to bring-to in windy weather, from a dread sometimes of upsetting, and more frequently of damaging by wet their baggage and stores. The men were likewise exposed to considerable fatigue in towing the canoes over spots on which a rapid current, a ripple, or rocky points, rendered the navigation difficult. This laborious task was frequently performed during
long

long continued showers of rain; yet so judicious and encouraging was the behaviour of the two commanding officers, that not a murmur was heard among the party.

Among the objects which gave variety to the scene during this tedious navigation, were the inequalities in the banks of the river, the alternation of plain and mountain in the adjacent country, and the aspect of the different streams which flowed into the main current. The most extraordinary appearances, however, occurred a great way up the river, in a place at which walls of rock rose from the water's edge in a line nearly perpendicular, and with all the resemblance of artificial construction. Their height is very considerable; and they are found on examination to consist of white sand-stone, of so soft a texture as to yield readily to the impression of water.

‘ In trickling down the cliffs, the water has worn the soft sand-stone into a thousand grotesque figures, among which, with a little fancy, may be discerned elegant ranges of free-stone buildings, with columns variously sculptured, and supporting long and elegant galleries, while the parapets are adorned with statuary: on a nearer approach they represent every form of elegant ruins; columns, some with pedestals and capitals entire, others mutilated and prostrate, some rising pyramidally over each other till they terminate in a sharp point. These are varied by niches, alcoves, and the customary appearances of desolated magnificence: the illusion is increased by the number of martins, who have built their globular nests in the niches, and hover over these columns; as in our country they are accustomed to frequent large stone structures. As we advance, there seems no end to the visionary enchantment which surrounds us. In the midst of this fantastic scenery are vast ranges of walls, which seem the productions of art, so regular is the workmanship: they rise perpendicularly from the river, sometimes to the height of one hundred feet, varying in thickness from one to twelve feet, being equally as broad at the top as below. The stones of which they are formed are black, thick, and durable, and composed of a large portion of earth, intermixed and cemented with a small quantity of sand, and a considerable portion of talk or quartz. These stones are almost invariably regular parallelepipeds of unequal sizes in the wall, but equally deep, and laid regularly in ranges over each other like bricks, each breaking and covering the interstice of the two on which it rests; but though the perpendicular interstice be destroyed, the horizontal one extends entirely through the whole work: the stones too are proportioned to the thickness of the wall in which they are employed, being largest in the thickest walls.’

These natural walls must be carefully distinguished from a monument of a very different nature which has given rise to much speculation, and which is to be seen in the Lower Missouri, a little way below the influx of Quicurre river. The walls in the latter case are evidently artificial, and must be the
remains

remains of an antient fortification : they consist of three distinct ranges, one of which is a mile long and nearly eight feet in height ; a work of unusual magnitude for tribes of such insignificant numbers as the present occupants of that country. A plate of this remarkable relic of a former age is given on a small scale in this volume.

The provisions for the expedition continued to be procured by hunting along the country adjacent to the banks of the river ; some of the most dexterous sportsmen of the party being usually sent forwards in the morning, with instructions to ascend the sides of the river and to rejoin the canoes at appointed stations. The game consisted occasionally of elks, antelopes, and deer, but generally of buffaloes. On a few occasions, the hunters were exposed to hazard from the rattlesnake, or from an animal approaching to the tiger species : but their frequent and formidable enemies were the bears. The strength of that animal and its tenacity of life are surprizing, and we find a variety of hair-breadth escapes from them recorded in these pages.

‘ April 29th. We proceeded forward with a moderate wind : Captain Lewis, who was on shore with one hunter, met about eight o’clock two white bears. Of the strength and ferocity of this animal, the Indians had given us dreadful accounts : they never attack him but in parties of six or eight persons, and even then are often defeated with the loss of one or more of their number. Having no weapons but bows and arrows, and the bad guns with which the traders supply them, they are obliged to approach very near to the bear ; and, as no wound except through the head or heart is mortal, they frequently fall a sacrifice if they miss their aim. He rather attacks than avoids a man, and such is the terror which he has inspired, that the Indians who go in quest of him paint themselves and perform all the superstitious rites customary when they make war on a neighbouring nation. Hitherto those we had seen did not appear desirous of encountering us, but, although to a skilful rifleman the danger is very much diminished, yet the white bear is still a terrible animal. On approaching these two, both Captain Lewis and the hunter fired, and each wounded a bear : one of them made his escape ; the other turned upon Captain Lewis and pursued him seventy or eighty yards, but being badly wounded he could not run so fast as to prevent him from reloading his piece, which he again aimed at him, and a third shot from the hunter brought him to the ground : he was a male not quite full grown, and weighed about three hundred pounds : the legs are somewhat longer than those of the black bear, and the talons and tusks much larger and longer.’—

‘ May 11. About five in the afternoon one of our men who had been afflicted with biles, and suffered to walk on shore, came running to the boats with loud cries and every symptom of terror and distress : for some time after we had taken him on board, he was so much out of breath as to be unable to describe the cause of his anxiety,

anxiety, but he at length told us that about a mile and a half below he had shot a brown bear, which immediately turned and was in close pursuit of him; but the bear being badly wounded could not overtake him. Captain Lewis, with seven men, immediately went in search of him, and having found his track, followed him by the blood for a mile, and found him concealed in some thick brushwood, and shot him with two balls through the skull. Though somewhat smaller than that killed a few days ago, he was a monstrous animal and a most terrible enemy: our man had shot him through the centre of the lungs, yet he had pursued him furiously for half a mile, then returned more than twice that distance, and with his talons had prepared himself a bed in the earth, two feet deep and five feet long, and was perfectly alive when they found him, which was at least two hours after he received the wound. The wonderful power of life which these animals possess renders them dreadful: their very track in the mud or sand, which we have sometimes found eleven inches long and seven and a quarter wide, exclusive of the talons, is alarming; and we had rather encounter two Indians than meet a single brown bear. There is no chance of killing them by a single shot, unless the ball goes through the brains, and this is very difficult on account of two large muscles which cover the side of the forehead, and the sharp projection of the centre of the frontal bone, which is also thick. The fleece and skin of this bear were a heavy burden for two men, and the oil amounted to eight gallons.' —

' May 14. Towards evening the men in the hindmost canoes discovered a large brown bear lying in the open grounds, about three hundred paces from the river: six of them, all good hunters, immediately went to attack him, and concealing themselves by a small eminence came unperceived within forty paces of him: four of the hunters now fired, and each lodged a ball in his body, two of them directly through the lungs: the furious animal sprang up and ran open-mouthed upon them; as he came near, the two hunters who had reserved their fire gave him two wounds, one of which, breaking his shoulder, retarded his motion for a moment; but before they could reload he was so near that they were obliged to run to the river, and before they reached it he had almost overtaken them: two jumped into the canoe; the other four separated, and concealing themselves in the willows, fired as fast as each could reload: they struck him several times, but instead of weakening the monster each shot seemed only to direct him towards the hunter, till at last he pursued two of them so closely, that they threw aside their guns and pouches, and jumped down a perpendicular bank of twenty feet into the river; the bear sprang after them, and was within a few feet of the hindmost, when one of the hunters on shore shot him in the head and finally killed him: they dragged him to the shore, and found that eight balls had passed through him in different directions; the bear was old and the meat tough, so that they took the skin only, and rejoined us at the camp.'

After a navigation of two months, and a progress of more than a thousand miles from the winter-camp, the party became considerably

considerably embarrassed at the conflux of two rivers, which were apparently of equal magnitude. Their previous information had been received only from Indians, and was of too vague a nature to enable them to decide which of the streams in question was the true Missouri; yet this was a point of the greatest consequence to ascertain, because the river which it was their object to ascend was reported to be at no great distance from the headwaters running from the opposite side of the Rocky Mountains towards the Pacific Ocean. Two canoes with three men were dispatched to survey each of these ambiguous floods, and parties were sent out by land to discover, if possible, from the rising grounds, the distant bearings of each. Lofty ranges of mountains were conspicuous in the west; and some of them, though it was now the month of June, were covered with snow: so that there was no doubt of their neighbourhood to the great central ridge, but the direction of the rivers could not be distinguished to any considerable distance. Of the two, the one coming from the north had the brown colour and thickness of the Missouri; while the southern river had a rapid current, a pebbly bed, and transparent water, as if issuing from a mountainous country. The resemblance of the former to the river already navigated made almost all the privates of the party consider it as the Missouri: but the clearness of the other led the two Captains to the conclusion that it proceeded from those central mountains which were the grand objects of their search. However, before they adopted the decisive step of carrying the party forwards, they determined to repeat the investigation, Captain Lewis taking the northern and Captain Clarke the southern branch. Captain L. proceeded up the former during two days, but on the third became satisfied that its direction was too far north to afford the expected access to the waters running towards the Pacific Ocean. Captain C., on the other hand, found the southern branch proceed in a westward direction, so that there seemed little reason to doubt of its superior eligibility as a channel to the object of the expedition.

The next step was to make a deposit of all the heavy baggage that could possibly be spared, as the increasing shallowness of the water would soon render the navigation still more laborious. They adopted accordingly a plan very common among the traders who bring merchandise into the country of Indians of doubtful integrity, — that of digging a *cache* or hole in the ground, small at the top, but widened in the descent somewhat in the shape of a kettle. Choice was made of a dry situation; and the sod being very carefully removed, the excavation was completed, a flooring of wood and hides laid on the bottom, and the goods covered with skins: the earth was then

thrown into the river, and the sod laid on again with so much care that not the slightest appearance remained of the surface having been disturbed. These arrangements being made, Captain Clarke took charge of the canoes; while Captain Lewis, with four men, proceeded by land, in hopes of soon putting it beyond a doubt that the river which they were now ascending was the Missouri. The decisive proof was to be sought in its falls, which the Indians had described as not remote from the Rocky Mountains, and as of remarkable grandeur. Captain Lewis passed along the direction of the river during two days, (11th and 12th June,) and on the next day found himself in a position which overlooked a most beautiful plain.

‘ *Falls of the Missouri.*— Finding that the river here bore considerably to the south, and fearful of passing the falls before reaching the Rocky Mountains, they now changed their course to the south, and, leaving those insulated hills to the right, proceeded across the plain. In this direction Captain Lewis had gone about two miles when his ears were saluted with the agreeable sound of a fall of water, and, as he advanced, a spray which seemed driven by the high south-west wind arose above the plain like a column of smoke and vanished in an instant. Towards this point he directed his steps, and the noise, increasing as he approached, soon became too tremendous to be mistaken for any thing but the great falls of the Missouri. Having travelled seven miles after first hearing the sound, he reached the falls about twelve o’clock: the hills as he approached were difficult of access and two hundred feet high: down these he hurried with impatience, and seating himself on some rocks under the centre of the falls, enjoyed the sublime spectacle of this stupendous object, which since the creation had been lavishing its magnificence upon the desert, unknown to civilization.— For ninety or a hundred yards from the left cliff, the water falls in one smooth even sheet, over a precipice of at least eighty feet. The remaining part of the river precipitates itself with a more rapid current, but being received as it falls by the irregular and somewhat projecting rocks below, forms a splendid prospect of perfectly white foam two hundred yards in length, and eighty in perpendicular elevation. This spray is dissipated into a thousand shapes, sometimes flying up in columns of fifteen or twenty feet, which are then oppressed by larger masses of the white foam, on all which the sun impresses the brightest colours of the rainbow.’—

‘ 14th. This morning one of the men was sent to Captain Clarke with an account of the discovery of the falls, and, after employing the rest in preserving the meat which had been killed yesterday, Captain Lewis proceeded to examine the rapids above. From the falls he directed his course south-west up the river: after passing one continued rapid, and three small cascades, each three or four feet high, he reached, at the distance of five miles, a second fall.— Above this fall the river bends suddenly to the northward: while viewing this place Captain Lewis heard a loud roar above him, and crossing the point of a hill for a few hundred yards, he saw one of the most beautiful
objects

objects in nature : the whole Missouri is suddenly stopped by one shelving rock, which, without a single niche, and with an edge as straight and regular as if formed by art, stretches itself from one side of the river to the other for at least a quarter of a mile. Over this it precipitates itself in an even uninterrupted sheet to the perpendicular depth of fifty feet, whence dashing against the rocky bottom it rushes rapidly down, leaving behind it a spray of the purest foam across the river. The scene which it presented was indeed singularly beautiful, since, without any of the wild irregular sublimity of the lower falls, it combined all the regular elegancies which the fancy of a painter would select to form a beautiful waterfall. — Captain Lewis now ascended the hill which was behind him, and saw from its top a delightful plain extending from the river to the base of the Snow Mountains to the south and south-west. Along this wide level country the Missouri pursued its winding course, filled with water to its even and grassy banks, while about four miles above it was joined by a large river flowing from the north-west through a valley three miles in width, and distinguished by the timber which adorned its shores ; the Missouri itself stretches to the south in one unruffled stream of water, as if unconscious of the roughness it must soon encounter, and bearing on its bosom vast flocks of geese, while numerous herds of buffaloes are feeding on the plains which surround it.

‘ Captain Lewis then descended the hills, and directed his course towards the river falling in from the west. He soon met a herd of at least a thousand buffaloes, and being desirous of providing for supper shot one of them ; the animal immediately began to bleed, and Captain Lewis, who had forgotten to reload his rifle, was intently watching to see him fall, when he beheld a large brown bear who was stealing on him unperceived, and was already within twenty steps. In the first moment of surprise he lifted his rifle, but remembering instantly that it was not charged, and that he had not time to reload, he felt that there was no safety but in flight. It was in the open level plain, not a bush nor a tree within three hundred yards, the bank of the river sloping and not more than three feet high, so that there was no possible mode of concealment ; Captain Lewis therefore thought of retreating in a quick walk as fast as the bear advanced towards the nearest tree ; but as soon as he turned the bear ran open mouth and at full speed upon him. Captain Lewis ran about eighty yards, but finding that the animal gained on him fast, it flashed on his mind that by getting into the water to such a depth that the bear would be obliged to attack him swimming, there was still some chance of his life ; he therefore turned short, plunged into the river about waist deep, and facing about presented the point of his espartoon. The bear arrived at the water’s edge within twenty feet of him, but as soon as he put himself in this posture of defence, he seemed frightened, and wheeling about, retreated with as much precipitation as he had pursued. Very glad to be released from this danger, Captain Lewis returned to the shore, and observed him run with great speed, sometimes looking back as if he expected to be pursued, till he reached the woods. He could not conceive the cause
of

of the sudden alarm of the bear, but congratulating himself on his escape when he saw his own track torn to pieces by the furious animal, and learnt from the whole adventure never to suffer his rifle to be a moment unloaded.'

Meantime, Captain Clarke with the canoes advanced but slowly; the rapidity of the current, the quantity of large stones, and the number of shoals and islands, adding exceedingly to the labour of the party. They were greatly cheered, however, by the news of the discovery of the Falls, which brought all their doubts to an end, and satisfied them that the alpine ridge before them was that part of the Rocky Mountains which they had so long sought to reach. They now gave the name of Maria's River to the stream that had perplexed them below, and redoubled their exertions to finish the navigation of the Missouri. It soon became necessary to lighten the canoes once more, and to fill another *cache* with a portion of their provisions and ammunition. On the 29th of June, Captain Clarke left the canoes, and

'Went on to the Falls accompanied by his servant York, Chaboneau, and his wife, with her young child. On his arrival there he observed a very dark cloud rising in the west which threatened rain, and looked around for some shelter, but could find no place where they would be secure from being blown into the river if the wind should prove as violent as it sometimes does in the plains. At length, about a quarter of a mile above the Falls he found a deep ravine, where there were some shelving rocks, under which he took refuge. They were on the upper side of the ravine near the river, perfectly safe from the rain, and therefore laid down their guns, compass, and other articles which they carried with them. The shower was at first moderate, it then increased to a heavy rain, the effects of which they did not feel: soon after, a torrent of rain and hail descended; the rain seemed to fall in a solid mass, and instantly collecting in the ravine came rolling down in a dreadful current, carrying the mud and rocks, and every thing that opposed it. Captain Clarke fortunately saw it a moment before it reached them, and springing up with his gun and shotpouch in his left hand, with his right clambered up the steep bluff, pushing on the Indian woman with her child in her arms; her husband too had seized her hand, and was pulling her up the bill, but he was so terrified at the danger that, but for Captain Clarke, himself and his wife and child would have been lost. So instantaneous was the rise of the water, that before Captain Clarke had reached his gun and begun to ascend the bank, the water was up to his waist, and he could scarce get up faster than it rose, till it reached the height of fifteen feet with a furious current, which, had they waited a moment longer, would have swept them into the river just above the great Falls, down which they must inevitably have been precipitated.—They had been obliged to escape so rapidly that Captain Clarke lost his compass and umbrella, Chaboneau left his gun, shotpouch, and tomahawk, and the Indian woman had just time to grasp her child, be-

fore the net in which it lay at her feet was carried down the current. He now relinquished his intention of going up the river, and returned to the camp at Willowrun. Here he found that the party sent this morning for the baggage had all returned to camp in great confusion, leaving their loads in the plain. On account of the heat they generally go nearly naked, and with no covering on their heads. The hail was so large and driven so furiously against them by the high wind, that it knocked several of them down: one of them particularly was thrown on the ground three times, and most of them bleeding freely and complained of being much bruised. Willowrun had risen six feet since the rain.—After it was over they proceeded to the fountain, which is perhaps the largest in America. It is situated in a pleasant level plain, about twenty-five yards from the river, into which it falls over some steep irregular rocks with a sudden ascent of about six feet in one part of its course.'

Among the wonders of this unvisited region, may be mentioned this discovery, in a level, at the distance of only twenty-five yards from the river, of a fountain which is doubtless one of the largest in the world. It boils up from among the rocks with such force, that its surface at the centre is higher than the adjacent ground; and so great is the discharge of water, that its bluish cast may be discerned for half a mile down the Missouri.—The party, continuing indefatigably their exertions, dragged the canoes, or pushed them with poles up the current of the Missouri, day after day; until, on the 27th of June, they arrived at the three forks of the river; that is, at the point at which three rivers, each of considerable size, flow together, and form the great stream. It being a matter of difficulty to determine the largest of the three, they decided on discontinuing here the name of Missouri, and calling its component waters respectively Jefferson's, Madison's, and Gallatin's river. As the first mentioned flowed from the west, they ascended it in preference to the others, but continued to experience great difficulty with the canoes in consequence of the rapidity of the current. Of all the articles, that which it was most essential to preserve from wet was their gunpowder. In so pure and dry an air as that of the mountainous region in which they now were, wood-work of any kind would have shrunk: but they had fortunately taken the precaution of placing the powder in canisters of lead, putting in each a quantity sufficient for the number of balls that could be obtained from the canister itself when melted.

They were now, however, on the point of reaching the end of the first great division of their journey. The river continued to lessen as they proceeded, its width on the part at which they arrived on the 8th of July being not more than forty yards, and on the 11th it was diminished to twelve, so as to admit

admit of being waded over without hazard. They had by this time proceeded by computation three thousand miles from the mouth of the Missouri, and they at last reached its extreme navigable point in Lat. $43^{\circ}.30'$, and nearly in Long. 112° west from Greenwich. Here they laid up their canoes, until they should return from the Pacific; and a party proceeding by land had the gratification of tracing the current to its fountain-head in the midst of the rocky mountains. 'From the foot of one of the lowest of these mountains, which rises with a gentle ascent of about half a mile, issues the remotest water of the Missouri. They had now reached the hidden sources of that river, which had never yet been seen by civilized man; and as they quenched their thirst at the chaste and icy fountain,—as they sat down by the brink of that little rivulet, which yielded its distant and modest tribute to the parent ocean,—they felt themselves rewarded for all their labours and all their difficulties.'

It would not be easy to class under general heads the characteristics of a river of such extent, and fed by such various tributaries. After the influx of Maria's river, the large stream already mentioned as joining it below the Falls, its bed is generally composed of a bluish mud, and its waters are consequently of a deep tinge: while its channel is embarrassed by rocks and rapids in the mountainous district, but below the Falls little difficulty occurs in its downward navigation, and not much change in its appearance for nearly two thousand miles; that is, all the way to the influx of the great river La Platte. That copious flood throws out great quantities of coarse sand; which, when drifted down, adheres to some of the points projecting from the shore, and in time forms, with the accumulated mud, a barrier against the water. The growth on these mounds, first of the willow, and next of the cotton-wood-tree, soon gives them consistency, and obliges the water to seek a passage elsewhere. As the soil on each side is light and yielding, the river encroaches on it, and is thus, like the Mississippi, undergoing a continued change in its banks.

Having now accompanied the travellers to the source of the Missouri, we take leave of them for the present; proposing, in our next Number, to give an account of their journey across the Rocky Mountains, and of their subsequent navigation down the Columbia to the Pacific.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Transactions of the Geological Society*, established November 13. 1807. Volume II. 4to. Maps and Plates separate. pp. 565. 3l. 16s. Boards. W. Phillips. 1814.

ON a former occasion, (see Rev. N. S. Vol. lxxvii. p. 126.) we gave a short account of the first volume of these highly respectable Transactions; and, with much pleasure, we now proceed to make a report of the present continuation.

On certain Products obtained in the Distillation of Wood, with some Account of Bituminous Substances, and Remarks on Coal. By J. Macculloch, M.D. F.L.S. Chemist to the Ordnance, &c. — Without material injustice to these observations, we cannot pretend to reduce them to a more compendious form than that in which they are here exhibited: but we deem it incumbent on us to remark that the author's statements of the processes to which he had recourse, and his temperate and judicious reasonings on the results which he obtained, not only bespeak originality of research, but are calculated to suggest some important discoveries to the chemical mineralogist. By considering every process of rapid distillation by means of a hot fire as a series of decompositions, he has been enabled to furnish us with more correct views of the nature of vegetable tar and bitumen than the discordant theoretical principles of chemists have hitherto supplied. Even the artist may derive some useful hints from the Doctor's ideas relative to the inflammable gases and plumbago, as well as from the concluding paragraphs; which, as susceptible of insulated quotation, we submit to the consideration of our readers:

‘As nothing tends more to confusion of ideas than confusion of terms, I may be excused for proposing a name to the pitch of distilled wood, a name in familiar use, though hitherto unappropriated by chemists. It is in fact that which is well known to painters by the name of *Bistre*, although the nature of bistre has I believe never yet been examined, and the importance of it to the arts of design induces me to extend this article for a few lines. According to Dr. Lewis, bistre is produced from the soot of all wood; other receipt-books give us the same account, but limit the sort of wood to beech, without seeming aware of its real nature; but the colourmen use the soot of all wood indiscriminately.

‘Those artists who have made the tour of the Highlands of Scotland are well acquainted with that variety of it, which varnishes the interior of a Highland cottage.

‘In all these cases it is a very variable article, and the colour-maker, being unacquainted with its real nature, is unable to rectify its faults, in consequence of which it is often unfit for use, notwithstanding the various opacose and mysterious purifications it undergoes in his workshop. The causes of these varieties will be very evident to those who have read the foregoing experiments. An imperfect separation

separation of essential oil, and a consequent tenacity arising from its too near alliance to the tar, will appear to be its most common vice, and it is this which gives it that disagreeable gumminess and disposition to return to the pencil which is destructive of its best qualities. At times also from the same causes it is offensively yellow. So valuable is a brown colour that will work freely and with transparency, that the artists will be much obliged to him who shall render bistre equal in freedom and force to seppia. By distilling or evaporating the oil from the pitch, according to the process described above, a colour may be produced varying in tone from the warmest bistre brown down to black. At the same time the substance loses a great portion or the whole of its disagreeable tenacity, according to the degree of boiling it has undergone. By treatment in alcohol, results in some measure similar are produced, and the residuum of this solution is equal in colour to seppia, and totally void of tenacity. In either or both of these ways may the quality of this colour be improved.

‘ It might perhaps be a matter worthy of trial, whether useful varieties in colour and quality might not be produced by the distillation of different woods. That which I used was procured either from willow or alder, the two woods chiefly used in the royal powder mills, but I cannot ascertain from which of them. The solution in lixivium of potash or of soda, a substance analogous to the resinous soaps, answers the purpose of ink, possessing a colour sufficiently intense, and flowing freely from the pen without requiring gum. As it is indestructible by time, by the common acids, or by the alkalies, perhaps it may be found a valuable substitute for this useful but fugacious substance. The compound of bistre and soda appears peculiarly well fitted for drawing in monochrome, since, as it does not consist of a powder suspended in a vehicle, it is free from the peculiar defects, so well known to artists, which occur in colours thus compounded.

‘ I may also add that it forms a substitute for asphaltum in drying oil where such a coloured varnish is wanted, and that it makes a very good japan varnish for metal if dissolved in spirit of wine, and heated strongly after its application. It is for practical men to see whether, by combining it with asphaltum, lac, or the gums, some more useful and cheap compounds of this sort may not be produced.’

Mineralogical Account of the Isle of Man. By J. F. Berger, M.D. M.G.S. — After having sketched the general aspect of its hills and valleys, Dr. Berger proceeds to enumerate and particularize the various rocks of which this island is composed. Primitive granite is found at a considerable depth, but very little of this substance, and that little being of a small-grained texture, occurs at the surface. Secondary clay-slate, of various texture and colour, is much more abundant. Grey wacke, destitute of organic remains, may be traced all along the contour of the island, generally forming a range of bold cliffs, except in those places at which it is outskirted by the

floetz lime-stone. In some parts it very nearly approximates to clay-slate, and in others to quartzose sand-stone. On the south quay of Douglas, beds of grey wacke-slate, of four different varieties, alternate with one another. The secondary lime-stone, which lies over the most superficial of the produced strata of grey wacke, is accompanied by magnesian lime-stone, either in separate beds or in patches, and including organic remains analogous to those which are found in the calcareous districts of Westmoreland, Cumberland, Durham, and Kilkenny, in Ireland; namely, madrepores, entrochi, terebratulæ, &c. 'The magnesian lime-stone that appears along Castle-town river, from Ball-Kallack towards Athol-bridge, is remarkable for a circumstance that has not as far as I can remember been yet noticed. I mean the occurrence of quartz-nodules, sometimes above the size of a pea and even of a bean. The quartz is quite glassy, and the concretions perfectly distinct, as if they had been water-worn, and subsequently imbedded in the lime-stone itself. This is not however a conclusion I should adopt, as it seems to me that their existence may be better accounted for by way of crystallization.' — In two situations, an unstratified bed of amygdaloid overlies the lime-stone, having for its basis an earthy greenish-grey wacke, with nodules of lamellar calcareous spar. Sand-stone occurs, of a fine texture, and under the form of conglomerate.

Granite and mica-slate both occasionally appear, in detached blocks, but not so abundantly as porphyry. The basis of this last is a compact flesh-coloured felspar, with some hornblend, and a few crystals of transparent lamellar felspar dispersed through the mass. Of primitive syenite, a solitary block is quoted, but several were observed of quartz, as were water-worn pebbles of garnet-rock. The only transition-rock that is noticed, as being found in a detached state, is grey wacke, and the only floetz pebbles are those of lime-stone.

Among the simple minerals which are seen in their native repositories, the most conspicuous is galena, which is discovered at three different places, and for the most part traversing grey wacke. Some of this ore is reported to yield upwards of twenty ounces of silver in the ton: but the mines have been long since abandoned as unprofitable. From three varieties of calcareous marl, the farmers derive the means of fertilizing their fields to a very advantageous extent, since one marling suffices for twenty years.

Wolfram, tin-stone, and earthy talc, are mentioned as simple *detached* minerals, but, at the same time, as of doubtful locality; the specimens having made part of a collection that belonged to the late Lord Henry Murray.

To the mineralogical details are annexed indications of the mean temperature of the island, and of the elevation of various hills above the level of the sea, &c.

On the Granite Tors of Cornwall. By J. Macculloch, M.D., &c. — The rocking propensities of the far-famed *Logging-rock*, *Cheese-wring*, and *Vixen-tor*, are here traced, with much ability, to the greater tendencies manifested by cuboidal masses of granite to decompose at their angles than at their sides, and thus, ultimately, to assume spheroidal forms. For the illustration of this view of the subject, we must refer to the original communication and drawings.

Notes on the Mineralogy of the Neighbourhood of St. David's, Pembrokeshire. By John Kidd, M.D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Oxford. — Dr. Kidd appears to have paid no indolent visit to the Welsh coast, since, in the course of a few days, he contrived to investigate, with considerable minuteness, the geological features of eleven distinct stations. Without presuming to track the line of his perambulations, we shall only remark that the insulated conical rocks or hills, which are scattered over an extensive and uneven plain, in the neighbourhood of St. David's, are principally composed of felspar and hornblend; and that they serve as so many nuclei, about which is arranged a diversified series of highly inclined strata, of a schistose character: the geological phenomena described nearly corresponding with those which have been observed in Guernsey, Jersey, and various parts of Devonshire, Cornwall, &c.

An Account of the Brine Springs at Droitwich. By Leonard Horner, F.R.S. M.G.S. — So early as the year 816, incidental mention is made of *salt-furnaces* at Droitwich. The brine-pits are in the centre of the town, in a narrow valley, formed by the small river Salwarp. Here the prevailing rock is a fine-grained calcareo-argillaceous sand-stone, of a brown-red colour, with occasional patches and spots of a greenish-blue, sometimes traversed by veins of crystallized gypsum. Mr. Horner had it not in his power to ascertain with precision the series of subterraneous stratification: but it is not to be doubted that the brine-spring, which is 22 inches deep, runs over a bed of rock-salt by which it is impregnated; and that, when the rock immediately above the brine is perforated, the latter rushes up into the pit. Of the sixteen thousand tons of salt annually manufactured at Droitwich, the greater portion is consumed in England. 'The present market-price of the salt is 31l. per ton, 30l. of which is duty.' — Much of the brine is allowed to run to waste. — The manufacturing process does not essentially differ from that which is employed in Cheshire.

On the Veins of Cornwall. By William Phillips, M.G.S. — The principal object of this paper is to state the general and more important facts relative to the veins of Cornwall, under separate heads. The prevailing direction of the productive or metalliferous veins of this country is east and west. Some of them are known to extend two or three miles, and probably stretch much farther; at least, the most experienced miner never witnessed the termination of one of them either on the east or west, although they sometimes soon degenerate into strings that are not worth working. In some few instances, partial deviations from the common line of direction have been observed. The copper and tin-veins are not perfectly perpendicular to the horizon, but incline, more or less, to the north, or the south: ‘This inclination is called the *underlie of the load*, which in some veins does not exceed a few inches in a fathom from the perpendicular, but in others is a fathom in a fathom, or even more.’ The greatest depth of mines now at work is from 200 to 228 fathoms, and the greatest width of a metalliferous vein, 30 feet: but the more common width is from one to three feet; yet these dimensions often vary materially in the same mine.

Mr. Phillips very properly allots a part of his essay to an explanation of the provincial and technical denominations of the characters of the different mines; and he also points out the symptoms which are reckoned to augur favourably of their productiveness, the most promising of which, however, sometimes prove deceitful, and *vice versâ*. Nearly allied to these topics, are the *discovery* of veins and the *contents* of the productive sorts; both of which are duly discussed, but without furnishing us with much original information. The same remark does not apply to the ensuing notices:

‘Veins containing copper, as well as those containing tin, are found both in granite and in schist, though until within the last 50 years it was esteemed in Cornwall a hopeless expectation to find a vein containing copper in the former of these rocks. Experience has, however, in many instances, in the parishes of Redruth and Gwennap, as well as in some others, proved that veins of copper-ore are found in granite. In both of those parishes, granite and schist have in some mines been found to alternate; this alternation has not, as I conceive, arisen from their stratification, but from the casual unevenness of the first being supplied by a deposition of the second. It has, I believe, been but rarely noticed that the course of a vein has been along their junction; but some instances of this have certainly occurred; and I was informed by Captain William Davey, of Redruth, one of the most skilful and intelligent practical miners of the present day, and who was the principal manager of Huel Gorland mine, that for some fathoms both in length and depth one wall of one of its veins was of granite

granite and the other of schist; another instance is mentioned in the annexed notice of the accompanying section of Tin Croft mine.

‘ The alterations in the country from schist to granite, and back again to schist, are very frequent in some of the mining districts of Cornwall, so that it is impossible in a word to say in which some of the mines are situated, but I suspect this to be principally the case with those mines that are at the foot, or in the immediate neighbourhood of granite hills. I have not noticed any instances of the junction of these two substances in which the granite has not shewn a tendency to decomposition: it is sometimes separated from the schist by a slight ferruginous seam.’

The *Cross Courses*, as they are called, or the north and south veins, are from half an inch to a few feet in width, and are either nearly perpendicular to the horizon or incline east or west. In some tracts of the mining districts, they are very common: but they rarely include metallic substances, their contents being usually quartz, or a soft, marly, or argillaceous substance; or, lastly, an ochreous and friable matter, termed *Cross-gossan*. These cross veins, especially when they *slide* or *beave*, often derange the working of the metalliferous veins, and occasion great trouble and expence.

In this interesting view of the Cornish mines, the writer laments the ignorance of the workmen, and even of the *captains*, or overseers, which is a source of ruinous waste to the proprietors, and of serious loss to the country. By way of appendix, he has exhibited sections and descriptions of some of the mines that are remarkable either for their peculiarities or for some striking geological fact.

On the Fresh Water Formations in the Isle of Wight, with some Observations on the Strata over the Chalk in the South-east Part of England. By Thomas Webster, M.G.S. — Having shortly retraced the leading features of the stratification in the neighbourhood of Paris, as delineated by Messrs. Cuvier and Brongniart, Mr. Webster proceeds to indicate a series of analogous formations in the Isle of Wight, and in what he terms the *London Basin*. He first institutes a comparative review of the French and British Basins, and then lays down the points of their coincidence and difference; for the distinct apprehension of which we recommend to our geological readers the perusal of this ingenious dissertation, and the inspection of the plates by which it is accompanied. To us, the want of gypsum in the English series of strata appears to be the most material deficiency in the parallel: but the formations on both sides of the water may have been coëval, though differing, in some respects, in point of constitution; the operation of causes being, no doubt, modified by the influence of local circumstances. r,
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The alternations of fresh water and marine depositions, in various quarters of the globe, obviously carry us back to epochs that are lost in the darkness of antiquity.

Remarks on the Vitriified Forts of Scotland. By J. Macculloch, M.D. &c. — That the antient monuments here in question, concerning which so many conjectures have been hazarded, are the remnants of extinct volcanoes, is a position too absurd to be seriously maintained by any person who has taken the pains to examine them. That they were intended merely to serve the purposes of beacons, or signal-posts, is likewise highly improbable, 1. because they form no continuous chain of intercourse; 2. because they occupy the *strongest* rather than the *highest* eminences; and, 3. because they give unequivocal indications of having been constructed with a view to protect the more accessible points of approach. Dr. Macculloch, who has personally visited several of these curious strong holds, and who applies his observations with much logical precision to the objects of his inquiries, has also convinced us that the vitrification, which is more or less partial according to the nature of the materials employed, must have resulted from design, and from a considerable degree of heat, applied in detail to portions of the building during the progress of erecting it. The architects, whether Danes or Caledonians, appear to have been perfectly aware of the most fusible stoney substances within their reach.

On the Sublimation of Silica. By the Same. — The phænomenon announced in this title was produced by accident, and could not be recalled at pleasure. Its existence, however, deserves to be recorded, and may eventually suggest important speculations and discoveries.

Observations on the Specimens of Hippurites from Sicily, presented to the Geological Society by the Hon. Henry Grey Bennet. By James Parkinson, M.G.S. — It is here conjectured, with sufficient plausibility, that the hippuris, in a living state, was susceptible of buoyancy, and may have been capable of ascending to the surface of the water.

An Account of the Coal-Field at Bradford, near Manchester. By Robert Bakewell. — Among the strata of this limited coal-field, three occur, of a reddish-brown lime-stone, which is supposed to be destitute of organic remains. Another geological peculiarity is thus stated:

‘ The coal-measures dip to the south at an angle of about 30°, and wherever they have been proved, on the southern side of the field, abut against the sand-stone; but on the northern side, at the distance of ten yards from the red rock, a most striking change in the position of the strata is discovered. A bed of coal, four feet in thick-

ness, here rises up to the surface perpendicularly, and terminates the coal-measures; the intermediate space between this bed and the red rock being filled with broken stones or rubble, without any appearance of stratification. This perpendicular bed has been worked to the depth of forty feet, and is of the same quality and general appearance as a four-feet bed which rises near the middle of the field. The stone that lies over the one agrees with that adjoining to the other, which the proprietor does not doubt is a portion of the inclined bed broken off, and thrown into its present position. The distance of the perpendicular bed of coal from the rise of the last bed, that preserves its inclination of 30° , is 325 yards, and between these no fracture or fault has been found to explain the difference in their angles of elevation. There is indeed a dyke in one part of the field, filled with a stone nearly similar to the red rock, but it does not affect the position of the strata on either side of it.

‘Fourteen hundred yards to the north of the Bradford coal-field, and separated from it by the red sand-stone, is the coal-field of Droylsdon. The first coal that rises there, at the distance of 60 yards from the red rock, is similar to the bed which rises at the distance of 350 yards from the perpendicular coal in the Bradford field.’—

‘It appears probable that the strata in these two fields were once united, and have been separated by some convulsion of nature; in consequence of which the red rock has been interposed like a wedge between them, a sliding motion being given to the strata by lateral pressure; for a force acting in a direct line from above or beneath could not produce the bending or folding of the four-feet coal.’

Some Account of the Island of Teneriffe. By the Hon. Henry Grey Bennet, M.P. F.R.S. Pres. Geological Society. — Though Teneriffe and its Peak have been repeatedly described, we know not that its geological structure (or, in other words, its entire volcanic constitution,) has been more distinctly unfolded than in these impressive pages. Dr. Gillan, indeed, had maintained that the district between Laguna and Matanzos affords no symptoms of volcanic agency; and the streams of lava in that quarter of the island, it is admitted, are far from numerous:

‘But the mountains in the vicinity of Laguna are all volcanic, and one has a visible crater; besides, the assertion would prove too much; for it would go to maintain that the Campagna Felice, as well as the plains of Catania, were not created by the ash and pumice eruption of Vesuvius and *Ætna*. The bed of soil is here very deep. I examined some ravines that the rains had laid open to the depth of 30 or 40 feet: the strata were indurated at the bottom, and resembled the tufa in the vicinity of Naples, and all contained the substances mentioned above. This tufaceous character changes as you ascend the hill that separates Laguna from Santa Cruz; the hill itself, and the whole neighbourhood of the latter city, is one continued stream of lava, hardly at all decomposed, with little or no vegetation; but here
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and there in the hollows some few stunted plants of the *aloe algarvensis*, and the *cytissus*.'

Mr. B. sketches the general aspect of the soil, which every where declares its igneous origin; recites the interesting particulars of his ascent to the summit of the Peak; and concludes with a word of encouragement to those who may be desirous of following his example: ●

'The difficulties of this enterprize,' says he, 'have been much exaggerated; the ascent on foot is not a labour of more than four hours at most, and the whole undertaking not to be compared in point of fatigue to what the traveller undergoes who visits the Alps. That the ascent must be hazardous in a storm of hail and snow there can be no doubt, but to cross Salisbury-plain may sometimes be dangerous. Yet stripped of poetical terrors, and divested of the eloquent description of some writers, there is perhaps no mountain in Europe, the ascent of which does not furnish more difficulties than the Peak of Teneriffe.'

On the Junction of Trap and Sand-stone, at Stirling Castle. By J. Macculloch, M.D. &c. — The appearance which forms the subject of this short communication was discovered accidentally, in cutting a new road through the Castle-hill. 'The sand-stone stratum has been split into two parts in the direction of its stratification. The upper portion is then separated by a particular fracture, and bent upwards, terminating abruptly. It is in this position involved, supported, and covered by the green-stone. The broken end is irregularly fractured, but all its cavities are perfectly filled up with green-stone. The different laminæ, of which the sand-stone-stratum is composed, are not broken to accommodate themselves to this new position, but are irregularly waved and bent, preserving their continuity every where.' — These particulars, which will be more readily conceived from the drawing, appear to be unsusceptible of any satisfactory explanation on the doctrine of quiet subsidence in an aqueous solution.

On the Economy of the Mines of Cornwall and Devon. By John Taylor, M.G.S. — We have here a very clear and intelligible exposition of the most material circumstances in the management of the mining concerns between the owners and workers, &c. Were similar statements published of the practices which obtain in other mining countries, much mutual benefit might be derived from a comparative view of merits and defects.

On the Origin of a remarkable Class of Organic Impressions occurring in Nodules of Flint. By the Rev. William Conybeare, of Christ Church, Oxford, M.G.S. — This gentleman's remarks chiefly refer to certain minute and singular impressions, which he

he supposes to have originated in perforations made by some parasitical animalcule, in the substance of a shell of which the calcareous matter has been removed.

A Description of the Oxyd of Tin, the Production of Cornwall, of the Primitive Crystal and its Modifications, including an Attempt to ascertain with Precision, the Admeasurement of the Angles, by Means of the reflecting Goniometer of Dr. Wollaston: to which is added, a Series of its Crystalline Forms and Varieties. By Mr. William Phillips, M.G.S. — The title of this paper sufficiently announces the nature of its contents; and the descriptions of the crystalline forms are aided by numerous diagrams. Although the author avows his want of acquaintance with the principles of geometry, the quantity of accurate information which he has brought together, on the natural history of a valuable article of British commerce, is highly creditable to his diligence and zeal.

On some new Varieties of Fossil Alcyonia. By Thomas Webster, M.G.S. — These notices are illustrated by apposite figures. That the fossil forms and casts, to which they refer, are due to zoophytical bodies, can scarcely admit of doubt; and that, if recent, they would be classed under the genus *Alcyonium*, is extremely probable. One of the most remarkable of the group Mr. Webster has denominated *Tulip Alcyonium*, from the circumstance of the upper part of its stem resembling the head of a tulip before it is expanded. The specimens were observed in lime-stone and sand-stone, in the Isle of Wight.

Miscellaneous Remarks accompanying a Catalogue of Specimens transmitted to the Geological Society. By J. Macculloch, M.D. &c. — Among the interesting specimens particularized in this valuable article, we may notice the graphic granite of Rona, distinguished by the large size of its crystals both of felspar and quartz; *botryoidal siliceous schistus*, from the Schiant Isles, a rock composed of felspar and augite; fine varieties of chalcodony and heliotrope from Rum; marbles from Assynt; samples of graduating passages from lime-stone into the contiguous clay-slate and into micaceous schistus, from Isla; the singular syenite of Ailsa; the beautiful porphyry of Devar; sappare from Boharm; graphic granite, with large tourmalin crystals, from Portsoy; rutile from the neighbourhood of Killin, &c. Mere indications of localities, however, form the least precious part of Dr. Macculloch's lucubrations. The striking geological facts which he has recorded, as occurring in various parts of Scotland and the Hebrides, and the sagacious and candid inferences which he draws from them, constitute an important addition to the previous observations of Professor Jameson, of Edinburgh; bespeaking, also, a mind unwarping by the exist-
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ing state of opinions, and not much enamoured of the present *hypothetical* nomenclature of rocks and minerals. We are necessitated, however, reluctantly, to exercise our forbearance, and to refrain from entering into the details; since each commentary would require much more consideration than it is in our power to bestow. The Doctor's strictures, suggested by a view of the alternations of the rocks at Crinan, in Argyllshire, bear testimony to the discernment with which he conducts his speculations: but of these we can extract only a part:

‘ Having remarked on the very ill apprehended and often ill applied term grey wacke, I shall be pardoned for suggesting the propriety of limiting it by a certain fixed definition. Different observers have classed under it substances the most discordant, looking either to their general geological hypothesis, or finding it a convenient repository of rocks for which no other name was at hand. Thus it has become a chaos of ill associated substances. Because Cumberland and Wales are supposed *countries of transition*, almost every rock found in those districts has been occasionally called grey wacke, and thus we have had breccias of all possible modifications, sand-stones, and clay-slates, confounded with genuine grey wacke under one common designation.

‘ The definition of Werner appears precise, and I believe I do not misapprehend it, when I state that its essential part is to possess clay-slate as the cement of certain mechanically altered grains or fragments of different rocks. These may vary materially in size, and thus form the two leading varieties of fine and coarse grey wacke; and if they also possess a fissile structure, they will then constitute fine and coarse grey wacke slate. It is true that in the definition of Werner, as given us by Jameson, the grains are stated to be quartz, indurated clay-slate, and flinty slate: but, since felspar and fragments of other rocks do occasionally occur in the best characterized grey wacke, it would probably be desirable to extend this part of the character so far as to include all grains and fragments, of whatever nature they may be, and to consider the cementing substance, and obviously mechanical structure, as the essential part of the definition. I shall take an opportunity, in some remarks on another district, to enquire whether it would not also be convenient to extend the definition so far as to permit mica-slate to participate with clay-slate in the office of cement, the other parts of the character remaining the same.’

Remarks on several Parts of Scotland which exhibit Quartz Rock, and on the Nature and Connections of this Rock in general. By the Same. — An examination of the rock commonly designed *Granular Quartz*, and which predominates in the island of Jura, has afforded to this industrious contributor a confirmation of some of the ideas which he had advanced in the preceding article; while collateral illustrations derived from Assynt, Schihallien, &c. all tend to demonstrate that the rock in question constitutes formations of considerable extent, that it is partly a chemical and partly a mechanical mixture, and that
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it is found associated both with the primitive and the transition rocks of the Wernerians. Hence the propriety of assigning it a distinct station in the system, under the title of *Quartz*, or *Quartz Rock*. The ingenious observations, by which these views are accompanied, throw some new light on the structure, varieties, and geological relations of this natural modification of the siliceous department of the mineral kingdom.

Notice relative to the Geology of the Coast of Labrador. By the Rev. Mr. Steinhauer. — This very vague and meagre sketch merely furnishes a few hints, which, it is rather to be hoped than expected, some future observers may prosecute with more circumstantiality and effect.

Memoranda relative to Clovelly, North Devon. By the Rev. J. J. Conybeare, M.G.S. — These memoranda chiefly refer to some very striking curvatures and contortions in the grey wacke, or slaty strata, of the cliffs about Clovelly.

On Staffa. By J. Macculloch, M.D. &c. — This author's cool and dispassionate survey has somewhat reduced the over-charged colouring of former describers of this celebrated island, while it invites our attention to a geological appearance which seems to have escaped their notice; namely, a bed of alluvial fragments on some parts of its surface.

Here, then, is a circumstance in the mineral history of Staffa, adventitious it is true, but involving difficulties of no small importance. If we cast our eyes on the map, we shall perceive that it is embayed in a large sinuosity, formed in the island of Mull, and nearly enclosed on the opposite side by Iona and the Treshanish islands. Beyond the latter, a second line is drawn by Tirey, and Coll; while to the north, but at a greater distance, are placed the islands of Muck, Rum, Egg, Canna, and Sky. The whole island of Mull, with the exception of the Ross, is of a trap-formation; containing, however, some partial tracts of sand-stone and other rocks which I need not notice. The islands of Ulva and the Treshanish, with their dependent rocks, are also of trap-formation. So are the islands which lie to the north, and which I have enumerated above. Iona, however, together with Coll and Tirey, consists principally of gneiss and mica-slate traversed by granite veins, rocks which also form the chief parts of the coasts of Lorn, Appin, Morven, and Ardnamurchan.

It is to the former, then, that we must look for the origin of the rolled stones which cover Staffa, if, limiting the great operations of Nature by our own narrow views, and the ages which have contributed to change the face of the globe by our own short span, we are led to seek for that solution which may appear the least difficult. Even then, we must admit that Staffa has formed part of one continuous land with the islands of Coll, Tirey, and Mull, since no transportation could have been effected without the existence of some period of a continuous declivity between them.

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‘The language which this circumstance speaks is not obscure, and the nature of these changes allows of little dispute. If we admit this obliteration of so large a portion of solid land, and consider that a deep sea now rolls above the foundations of former mountains, we have no further difficulties to obstruct us in accounting for the numerous and distant accumulations of transported materials which occur over the whole surface of the earth. The same power, whatever it was, that hollowed the great sinuosity of Mull, might well remove the solid matter that once filled the valleys which now separate Mont Blanc from the ridge of Jura.

‘But, if appalled at the supposed magnitude of those changes, and at the period of time which must have elapsed to complete them, we suppose that the island of Staffa was elevated from the bottom of the sea in its present detached form, and retaining on its summit a portion of the bed of loose matter deposited under the present waters, another order of phenomena crowds on us, no less important, and involving circumstances almost equally repugnant to the visible operations of nature.

‘The appearances are perhaps insufficient to enable us to decide between two difficulties of equal magnitude, nor is it here necessary to enter further on that question. I may also leave it to those who have engaged more deeply in such investigations, to determine whether, in the supposition of the first of these causes, the wasting of the land has arisen from the gradual action of natural operations, or the more violent efforts of an occasional destroying force. It is my humble task to point out a fact, as a contribution to that mass of accumulating information on which a consolidated fabric may at some future time be erected. Yet the idle spectator or enthusiastic lover of Nature, who shall hereafter view this interesting spot, may, when he contemplates these grand revolutions, learn to wonder less at the efforts of that power which has hollowed the cave of Fingal, and submerged, in the depths of the ocean, those columns which seemed destined for eternity.’

On Vegetable Remains preserved in Chalcedony. By the Same.

—The delicate arborizations of the oxyds of iron and manganese, and the fibriform contortions of certain crystallizations of chlorite, had long induced some of the most observant naturalists to reject as a popular error the existence of vegetable relics in any modification of chalcedoneous paste. Daubenton and Blumenbach, however, had adduced some well ascertained instances of plants thus circumstanced; and he must be a hopeless sceptic who refuses his assent to the proofs of the same fact which Dr. Macculloch has here exhibited, and which he has finely elucidated by the perspicuity of his reasoning and the delicacy of his pencil. In many cases, indeed, the detection of the vegetable structure is a matter of great difficulty; both from the deposition of metallic particles which incrust its surface, and from the imperfect light with which it is viewed through the stone. In various accidental instances, however,
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the organized fibre reveals itself in a manner that cannot be mistaken. Most of the specimens hitherto examined seem to contain vestiges, more or less entire, of plants belonging to the cryptogamic class, although their precise species can seldom be ascertained with any degree of confidence. A few zoophytical remains have likewise been discovered, and, in one instance, the pupa of an insect. As the aquatic confervæ generally preserve in the stone their free and floating deportment, and frequently even their native hues, they have, in all probability, been entangled in the siliceous solution by some rapid process of nature of which we are at present entirely ignorant, but which obviously precludes the hypothesis of igneous fusion.

‘ Chemical analysis is often the only method by which the very doubtful specimens can be ascertained ; and if it be necessary to determine precisely all the specimens which bear the semblance of organization, it is the only trial which can be fully depended on, at least it is the only one on which mere chemical mineralogists will be inclined to place any reliance. A considerable experience in the several substances known by the name of *Moss Agates*, combined with some chemical trials on the most leading varieties, and the habits of botanical investigation, may indeed produce that *tact* in this examination which is well known to mineralogists in other cases; a judgment founded on circumstances so evanescent and minute as to be incapable of communication by words. The inconvenience which follows chemical trials is such as necessarily to preclude its application in many instances, and to render it desirable that accurate descriptions of all the varieties could be formed. The destruction of the specimen, often rare and almost always expensive, must inevitably follow this mode of investigation. I have not therefore subjected to this fiery trial every specimen which I have examined, but have selected such a number of the principal varieties as were sufficient to confirm that evidence which had appeared to result from botanical considerations, and to define in most of the difficult cases the obscure boundary between the real vegetable fibre, and its mimic resemblance, chlorite.

‘ The immediate object of chemical trial being to ascertain the presence of carbon in the chalcedony, the two following obvious modes were adopted. It was previously determined that all silicified wood had the property of blackening and decomposing sulphuric acid, and of giving over carbonic acid on distillation with nitre. It was also ascertained that chlorite (*chlorite baldogée*, or green earth,) did not possess the first of these properties, and that neither of these effects resulted from thus treating common chalcedony. Previously to these trials, the precaution was also taken of boiling the specimens for a considerable time in a solution of pure potash, to remove in the polished ones all possibility of the adhesion of the lapidary’s oil, a circumstance which would inevitably have led to fallacious results. In these experiments, ample confirmation appeared of the deductions which had been made from botanical examination, and I was further enabled to detect many specimens of chlorite, where I had not ex-

pected its existence. The same trials afforded a test which I found in many instances to be very easily applicable to the object of this distinction. This test consisted in the effervescence which is produced when boiling sulphuric acid is applied to those chalcedonies which contain chlorite, while those which contain vegetable fibres blacken the same substance without exciting effervescence. I need scarcely add that I laid no stress on the method of distinction when the stone appeared to contain carbonat of iron.'

The singular fact of delicate plants being entombed in siliceous concretions may now be regarded as decidedly established; and we doubt not that the varieties of examples will be greatly multiplied by future observation.

On the Vitreous Tubes found near to Drigg, in Cumberland. Compiled by the Secretaries from several Communications. — That we may not farther encroach on many other urgent claims, we must refer the curious reader to the text for a description of these extraordinary tubes, which appear to have been produced by the action of lightning on drifted sand.

This volume, which reflects so much credit on the talents and enlightened views of its contributors, closes with a most respectable list of donations to the Library and Collections of the Society.

ART. III. *Journal of a Residence in India*; by Maria Graham. 4to. pp. 211. and Sixteen Plates. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

ART. IV. *Letters on India*; by Maria Graham. 8vo. pp. 400. and Nine Etchings and a Map. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

INDIA forms so important a section of the British empire, that it has naturally been the subject of innumerable publications, tending to define its geography, to explain its institutions, and to facilitate a liberal superintendence. Yet, notwithstanding the number of intelligent Englishmen who have visited or rather resided in Hindustan, for commercial, military, and political purposes, it is remarkable that few or no works in our language contain such a popular and comprehensive view of its scenery and monuments, and of the manners and habits of the residents, as may commonly be found in books of travels through countries less deserving notice. The cause of this deficiency in our literature is, no doubt, the difficulty hitherto opposed by the India-Company to the access of idle philosophic observers; permissions to enter Hindustan having been vouchsafed only to persons employed in the Company's service as traders, soldiers, or governors. We are glad to hear that a disposition is arising, to grant passports of admission more freely, and

and we trust that our young men of fortune and enterprize will begin to consider a tour in India as more characteristic of the patriot, and more important to the British statesman, than a tour through Italy and Germany. European prejudices exist which ought to be shaken off by those who are destined to sway in both hemispheres.

Persons who migrate to India with specific views have seldom leisure to go in quest of the prominent objects of curiosity, and to record immediately all that most impresses their observation. Having the prospect of a long residence, they usually postpone, at least, such inconvenient cares; and they wait so long to mature and to extend their information, that the interest of novelty is lost, and the scene is become too familiar to distinguish its peculiarities, or to appear any longer worthy of a careful delineation. Hence, in those volumes with which returning nabobs sometimes present the store-houses of our literature, we find much political and military history, much commercial and statistical information, much antiquarian and mythologic research, but seldom a fresh picture of the stirring living mass around, or a sketch of objects which strike the eye and mind of an observing stranger as dissimilar from European appearances and usages, — as variations in the features of nature and of man.

Such is the cast of the remarks in the Preface to the volume before us: in which, to the particular credit of the fair sex, a female has undertaken to supply this *lacuna* in our circulating knowlege. Acquainted at Bombay, at Madras, and at Calcutta, with the most eminent individuals of the European society, she has found easy access to every source of information which power or wisdom could lay open; and she has availed herself of the advantage, with that eminent propriety which might be expected from her great accomplishments. Skilled in the use both of the pencil and the pen, she has supplied many illustrative sketches of the objects described; and her remarks bear uniformly the impression of quick intelligence and cultivated taste.

Mrs. Graham went to India in 1809, and passed the first months of her oriental residence at Bombay; visiting during her stay the cave of Elephanta, the island of Salsette, and the excavations of Carli in the Mahratta mountains; whence she continued her excursion to Poonah, the metropolis. On her return to Bombay, she embarked for Ceylon, travelled along the coast from Point Galle to Colombo, and reached Trincomale on the opposite shore; her voyage terminating at Madras. Thence she went to Calcutta, and only returned to the Coromandel coast to embark for England, where she arrived during

the summer of 1811. Happy in the leisure of her sex, Mrs. Graham could devote to making memorandums several of those hours which men daily waste in what they call the pleasures of the table; and this journal, though undertaken for the amusement of personal friends, was so warmly, and, we add, so justly, admired in the select circle for which it was destined, that the fair author was induced to revise it for the press.

This first work, as its title strictly implies, is divided into days: but a sweep of remark adapted to the extent of an ordinary letter is put down at once as it occurred, and dated May, August, October, according to the circumstance, and many days supply no recorded observation:—so that, in fact, the book consists of a series of letters written successively, but forwarded at once to the European correspondent. If this epistolary form had more obviously been preserved, the length of some dissertations, for which printed materials were consulted, (such as that which is dated 24th November,) would have been agreeably interrupted.

A table of contents is not attached to the work: but what can we do better for the purpose of giving an idea of it, than to make such a table of the first chapter or two, as we turn over the pages? *Ex. gr.* Drawing of Ibrahim a Malay Interpreter;—Preface sketching a Map of the Tour;—View of the Temple of Mahadeo at Bombay;—Landing, Palankeenbearers, picturesque Character of the Dresses and Attitudes of the Natives;—Botanical Novelties;—Hospitality of Sir James and Lady Mackintosh;—Mazagong, whence Sterne's Eliza eloped;—Sion and its Banyan Trees;—Mahaim and its Temples;—Malabar-point and its Prospects;—Village of Bramins;—Cemeteries on the Shore;—Fort;—Screwing Cotton;—Holy Men;—Pundits;—Mosques;—Harem;—Bungalo;—Garden-snakes;—Arrack and Vang;—Toddy-gatherer's Cottage;—Society at Bombay;—Derdjees, or Milliners;—Carpenters;—Travelling Merchants;—Bazar;—Nocturnal Bustle;—Cocoa-nut Feast;—Tumblers;—Jugglers;—Parsees;—Zendavesta;—Fire-worship;—Elephanta;—View of the Caves there;—Mythological Information; &c. &c.

As the next letter, or fragment of journal, is dated from a different place, this analysis may serve to give an idea of the great variety of topic which always suggests itself to Mrs. Graham; and to every part of which she seems so equally able to do justice, that we can hardly refrain from suspecting the corrective assistance of the scholar. We transcribe the account of the Parsees:

‘ Nov. 20. — A few days ago I was fortunate enough to make one of a party, assembled for the purpose of hearing from the Dustoor Moola Firoze an account of the actual state of the *Guebres* or *Parsees* in India. The Dustoor is the chief-priest of his sect in Bombay; he is a man of great learning; he passed six years in Persia, or, as he more classically calls it, *Iraun*, two of which were spent at *Yezd*, the only place where the Mussulman government tolerates a *Guebre* college. His manners are distinguished, and his person and address pleasing. He is a tall handsome man, of the middle age, with a lively and intelligent countenance; his dress is a long white muslin jamma, with a *cummerbund* or sash of beautiful shawl; another shawl was rolled round his high black cap, and a band of crimson velvet appeared between it and his brow.

‘ The fragments of the ancient books of *Zoroaster* or *Zerdusht*, still extant, have been introduced in Europe by M. Anquetil, under the name of the *Zendavesta*; and there is a good deal of interesting matter concerning the establishment of *Pyrolatry* in Persia, in the Chevalier D’Ohsson’s *Tableau Historique de L’Orient*, chiefly on the authority of the *Shah Nameh* of Firdousi *. But I do not know that there is any account of the present state of such of the *Guebres* as are settled in India; and as these people form the richest class of inhabitants in Bombay, I have taken some pains to collect what information I could concerning them, both from Moola Firoze and other individuals of the nation.

‘ It appears that there have been two legislators of the name of *Zoroaster*, one of whom lived in times of such remote antiquity, that no dependence can be placed on the traditions concerning him. The last flourished as late as the reign of Darius the son of Cambyzes. He appears to have reformed the religion of his country, which there is reason to think was till that time the same with that of India, to have built the first fine temples, and to have written the books of *Guebre* laws, of which only some fragments remain. †

‘ The *Parsees* acknowledge a good principle under the name of *Hormuzd*, and an evil principle under that of *Ahrimane*. Subordinate to *Hormuzd*, the *ferishta*, or angels, are charged with the creation and preservation of the material world. The sun, the moon, and the stars, the years, the months, and the days, have each their presiding angel; angels attend on every human soul, and an angel receives it when it leaves the body. *Myrb*, or *Mubra*, is the *ferishta* to whom this important charge is assigned, as well as that of judging the dead; he is also the guardian of the sun, and presides over the sixth month, and the sixth day of the month. The good *ferishta* have corresponding evil genii, who endeavour to counteract them in all their functions; they particularly encourage witchcraft, and willingly hold converse with enchanterers of both sexes, sometimes re-

* For an account of the *Shah Nameh*, see Appendix.’

† See a curious traditional account of *Zerdusht* in Herbert’s *Travels*, pp. 48. to 54. This amusing traveller gives an account of the *Parsees* of *Guzerat*, as he found them when he accompanied Sir Robert Shirley on his last embassy to Persia.’

vealing truly the secrets of futurity for malicious purposes. As in other countries, the old, the ugly, and the miserable, are stigmatized as witches, and the Indian Bramins are regarded by the Guebres as powerful magicians.

‘ Fire is the chief object of external worship among the Parsees. In each *atsh-khaneh*, or fire-house, there are two fires, one of which it is lawful for the vulgar to behold, but the other, *atsh-baharam*, is kept in the most secret and holy part of the temple, and is approached only by the chief dustoor; it must not be visited by the light of the sun, and the chimneys for carrying off the smoke are so constructed as to exclude his rays. The *atsh-baharam* must be composed of five different kinds of fire, among which I was surprised to hear the dustoor mention that of a funeral pile, as the Guebres expose their dead; but he told me that it was formerly lawful to return the body to any of the four elements; that is, to bury it in the earth or in the water, to burn, or to expose it, but that the latter only is now practised; consequently, if the *atsh-baharam* goes out, they must travel to such nations as burn their dead, to procure the necessary ingredient to rekindle it. When the last *atsh-khaneh* was built in Bombay, a portion of the sacred fire was brought from the altar at Yezd, in a golden censer, by land, that it might not be exposed to the perils of the sea.

‘ The sun and the sea partake with fire in the adoration of the Guebres. Their prayers called *zemzemé*, are repeated in a low murmuring tone, with the face turned towards the rising or the setting sun, and obeisance is made to the sea and to the full moon. The Parsee year is divided into twelve lunar months, with intercalary days, but there is no division of time into weeks. The festivals are the *nowroze*, or day of the new year, and six following days; the first of every month; and the day on which the name of the day and that of the month agree, when the same *ferishta* presides over both.

‘ A Parsee marries but one wife, excepting when he has no children; then, with the consent of the first, he may take a second. An adopted child inherits equally with legitimate children, but, if there be none, before all other relations. The death of a father is observed as an annual festival. The body must not touch wood after death; it is accordingly laid upon an iron bier, to be conveyed to the repository for the dead, where it is left exposed to the air till it is consumed. In Bombay these repositories are square inclosures, surrounded by high walls; the vulgar Parsees superstitiously watch the corpse, to see which eye is first devoured by the birds, and thence augur the happiness or misery of the soul.

‘ The sacred books are in the Zend and Pehlavi languages, both ancient dialects of Persia. The fragments of these which escaped during the troubles that followed the Mahomedan conquest of Persia, are all that the Guebres have to direct either their practice or their faith; and where these are found insufficient, the dustoors supply rules from their own judgment. The chief doctrines of the remaining books respect future rewards and punishments, injunctions to honour parents, and to marry early, that the chain of being be not interrupted, and prohibitions of murder, theft, and adultery.

• • When the Guebres were driven from their own country by the Mussulmans *, a considerable body of them resolved to seek a new land, and accordingly put to sea, where they suffered great hardships. After attempting to settle in various places, they at length reached Sunjum in Guzerat, and sent their chief dustoor, Abah, on shore, to ask an asylum. This was granted by the Rajah on certain conditions, and a treaty to the following effect was drawn up: The Guebres shall have a place allotted to them for the performance of their religious and burial rites; they shall have lands for the maintenance of themselves and their families; they shall conform to the Hindoo customs with regard to marriages, and in their dress; they shall not carry arms; they shall speak the language of Guzerat, that they may become as one people with the original inhabitants; and they shall abstain from killing and eating the cow. To these conditions the Parsees have scrupulously adhered, and they have always been faithful to their protectors.

• The Parsees in British India enjoy every privilege, civil and religious. They are governed by their own *panchait*, or village council. The word *panchait* literally means a council of five, but that of the Guebres in Bombay consists of thirteen of the principal merchants of the sect; these were chosen originally by the people, confirmed by the government, and have continued hereditary. This little council decides all questions of property, subject, however, to an appeal to the recorder's court; but an appeal seldom happens, as the *panchait* is jealous of its authority, and is consequently cautious in its decisions. It superintends all marriages and adoptions, and inquires into the state of every individual of the community; its members would think themselves disgraced if any Parsee were to receive assistance from a person of a different faith; accordingly, as soon as the children of a poor man are old enough to marry, which, in conformity to the Hindoo custom, is at five or six years of age, the chief merchants subscribe a sufficient sum to portion the child; in cases of sickness, they support the individual or the family, and maintain all the widows and fatherless.

• The *panchait* consists both of dustoors and laymen: all religious ceremonies and festivals come under its cognizance, together with the care of the temples, the adjusting the almanack, and the subsistence and life of the dogs. I could not learn with certainty the origin of the extreme veneration of the Parsees for this animal; every morning the rich merchants employ koolis to go round the streets with baskets of provision for the wild dogs; and, when a Parsee is

• • The conquest of the kingdom of Fars, or Persia, took place in the seventh century, when Yezdegerd, the last king of the dynasty of Sassan, was overcome by the Calif Omar, and forced to take refuge in the mountains of Khorassan, where, after maintaining himself for some time, he died, A.D. 652, A.H. 32, and in the 21st year of the Yezdegerdian æra. His grand-daughter became the wife of the Mussulman ruler of Persia, who thus claimed the right of inheritance, as well as that of conquest, over the kingdom.'

dying, he must have a dog in his chamber to fix his closing eyes upon. Some believe that the dog guards the soul, at the moment of its separation from the body, from the evil spirits; others say that the veneration for the dogs is peculiar to the Indian Guebres, and that it arose from their having been saved from shipwreck in their emigration to India, by the barking of the dogs announcing their approach to the land in a dark night.

‘ The Parsees use some solemnities when they name their children, which is done at five or six months old; when the muslin shirt is put on the first time, a sacred fire is lighted, prayers are repeated, and the name is given. Since their intercourse with Europeans, they persist in calling this ceremony christening, because it is performed when the first or proper name is given; the second name is a patronymic; thus, *Norozejee Jumsheedjee*, is Norozejee the son of Jumsheedjee.

‘ The Parsees are the richest individuals on this side of India, and most of the great merchants are partners in British commercial houses. They have generally two or three fine houses, besides those they let to the English; they keep a number of carriages and horses, which they lend willingly, not only to Europeans, but to their own poor relations, whom they always support. They often give dinners to the English gentlemen, and drink a great deal of wine, particularly Madeira. The Guebre women enjoy more freedom than other oriental females, but they have not yet thought of cultivating their minds. Perhaps this is owing in great measure to the early marriages which, in compliance with the Hindoo customs, they contract. By becoming the property of their husbands in their infancy, they never think of acquiring a further share of their affection, and with the hope of pleasing, one great incitement to mental improvement is cut off.

‘ Some days ago, we all spent an evening with the family of Pestenjeer Bomangee, for they admit men as well as women to the ladies' apartments. The women were fair and handsome, with pleasing manners; they were loaded with ornaments, particularly the largest and finest pearls I ever saw. Pestengee's grandson, a child of seven years old, with his little wife, two years younger, appeared with strings of pearls as large as hazel-nuts, besides five or six long rows of the size of peas, and beautifully regular, given to them on their marriage, which happened a few months ago, on a lucky day, and in a lucky month; for the Parsees, like the Hindoos, regulate all their actions by the motions and configurations of the stars, or rather by the interpretations of the astrologers. It is not uncommon for a rich man to spend a lack of rupees (about twelve thousand five hundred pounds sterling) at the marriage of a child. Streets both carpeted and canopied with cotton cloth, confectionary and fruit scattered among the populace, feasting for several days for all ranks of people, processions and fire-works all night, and whole bazars illuminated, besides gifts to relations and dependents, account for the immense sums spent on these occasions. The little bride and bridegroom, borne on an ornamented palankeen, covered with jewels and flowers, preceded by banners and musical instruments,

ments, and followed by crowds of people, seem like little victims going to sacrifice, at least I cannot help considering them in that light.

‘The grandfather of Pestengee was Lowjee, who came from Guzerat to work in the dock-yard as a day-labourer; but having genius and perseverance, he made himself master of the art of ship-building, and was employed by the Company as master-builder. He has transmitted his talents with his place to his grandson Jumsheedjee, who is now at the head of the dock-yard, where I visited him, and was conducted by him all over the Minden, the first line of battle ship he ever built, with the pride of a parent exhibiting a favourite child. It was singular enough at first to see all the ship-wrights in white muslin dresses, caulking the ship with cotton instead of oakum. All the workmen in the yard are Parsees, and the greater number come from Guzerat, where they leave their families, and come to Bombay for a few months or years, saving their wages carefully, and mostly subsisting on what they earn by chance-work, till they have amassed a sufficient sum to go home and set up a trade for themselves. Jumsheedjee is a clever workman, but his son Norozeejee has more science, and I am told that his draughts have very great merit. This young man testifies the greatest desire to visit the great English yards, but his father cannot spare him from Bombay. The whole family, including Pestengee and Hormuzdjee, the brothers of Jumsheedjee, speak and write English so well, that if I did not see their dark faces and foreign dress, or read their unusual names at the end of a letter, I should never guess that they were not Englishmen.

‘The Parsees are in general a handsome large people, but they have a more vulgar air than the other natives; they are extremely active and enterprising, and are liberal in their opinions, and less bigotted to their own customs, manners, and dress, than most nations. Of their hospitality and charitable dispositions, the following is an instance. During the famine that desolated India in the years 1805 and 1806, the Parsee merchant Ardeseer Dadee, fed five thousand poor persons for three months at his own expence, besides other liberalities to the starving people. The Parsees are the chief landholders in Bombay. Almost all the houses and gardens inhabited by the Europeans are their property; and Pestengee told me that he received not less than 15,000*l.* a-year in rents, and that his brother received nearly as much.’

With similar recondite precision of information, and picturesque truth of description, the other different classes of Hindus are characterized. The monuments of religion and polity are also made known, with that respectful awe of the antiquary, which sees nothing for the sneer of criticism in the peculiarities of ritual or architectural taste that characterize the local institutions of men. Excellent engravings contribute to the instruction of the reader.

The octavo volume, *Letters on India*, which may be regarded as a continuation of the Journal, rather consists of literary glean-
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ings made at home since the first publication, and forms a convenient supplement to it. A desire of being useful to such persons as are destined to go to India, at an early period of life, has directed the choice of the matter which has been compiled, and the interstitial remarks which connect the materials. That judicious taste, which guides Mrs. Graham in her travels, also accompanies her in these selections from the literature relative to Hindustan : but they have an air of cold closet-work about them, and want those moving pictures from a gay and motley reality, which so perpetually enliven the *Journal*. We will make an extract from the thirteenth letter, relative to the system of castes : — in order to untwist or unravel this bond, the method must be traced in which it was originally braided :

‘ If one wished to illustrate the doctrine that knowledge is power, it would be scarcely possible to find a history more apposite than that of the subordination of castes in India. Nothing but superior knowledge could have procured for the Brahmins a sufficient ascendancy over the minds of their countrymen, to allow them to take to themselves the first rank in society, to enjoy without labour the conveniences and even luxuries which others must toil to gain, and without taking on themselves the burdens of either government or war, to reap the advantages of both, and to enjoy the privileges without incurring the dangers of dominion. Such, however, is the highly endowed Brahmin, who, in the solitude of his caverned mountains, or consecrated groves, studied the various powers and passions of the human mind, in order to bend and wind it the more surely to his purpose, while he investigated those laws of nature, the application of which, among a simple people, might make him alternately the prophet of blessings or the denouncer of woes. Nor were these the only means by which they virtually governed their fellow-citizens. Those religious feelings which are inherent in every human breast, and which sanctify every association with which they are combined, are of all others the most easily wrought upon.

‘ The Brahmins feigned to hold immediate intercourse with the Deity: they personified his attributes, and held them up as objects of worship to the people; they multiplied ceremonies and expiations, in which themselves were the officiating ministers, and thus placed themselves in the awful situation of mediators between the gods and men. Thus powerfully armed and arrayed, the first bold step towards the securing for ever such transcendant advantages, was the positive prohibition against the study of any of the sciences which had founded and maintained their empire of opinion, by any one who should either bear arms or exercise any profession separate from the priesthood; and this would probably not be difficult, for the natural disposition of man inclines him to lean on others for that knowledge and that protection which singly he feels so necessary, and at the same time so incapable of affording to himself. Even the monarchs of the earth were below the Brahmins in dignity. Caressed and flattered, or reviled and anathematized by the subtle Brahmins, the
greatest

greatest sovereigns moved but as they willed ; and if, provoked by their insolence, he called upon his warriors for revenge, he had no sooner extirpated the race within his own dominions, than all the horrors of conscience seized upon him ; and expiations, the recital of which make the blood run cold, or sometimes suicide, were resorted to, in order to propitiate the gods, or rather the priests, who styled themselves gods upon earth. Nor did these always suffice : the Brahmin was at liberty to adopt any of the professions of the other castes ; and they not unfrequently seized the sword of extermination and revenge, and more than one record remains among the actions of their deified heroes, of whole nations of warriors utterly exterminated even to the babe at its mother's breast.

‘ The four great tribes into which the Brahmins feign mankind to have been originally divided, are, first, the *Brabmanas*, who proceeded with the Vedas from the mouth of Brahma the Creator, and they were made superior to the other classes. The protector from ill, who sprung from the arms of Brahma, was named *Cshatriya*. He whose profession was commerce and husbandry, and attendance on cattle, was named *Vaisya*, and was produced from the body of Brahma, while his feet gave being to the fourth or *Sudra* class, whose business was voluntarily to serve for hire. *

‘ The Brahmins are divided into ten great classes, named from the nations whence they came, which are, with the exception of Casmira or Cashmere, the same with the ten ancient nations of India, which I formerly mentioned. Their names are the Saraswata, Canyacubja, Gaura, Mit'hila, Utcala, Dravira, Maharastra, Telingana, Gujjera, and Cashmira Brahmins. These ten classes are farther subdivided, according to the districts they are born in, and the families whence they spring ; and their usages and professions of faith differ in almost every tribe. While some hold it unlawful to destroy animal life, and abstain even from eating eggs ; others make no scruple of feeding on fish or fowl.

‘ Brahmins of different nations and families do not usually eat with each other, and under many circumstances, priests even of the same tribe refuse to eat together.

‘ The most important function of the Cshatriya or Xetrie class, is that of government. That caste, alone, ought to furnish monarchs, and a Brahmin is forbidden to accept of any gift from a king not born a Xetrie. At the same time, while the sceptre is thus placed in the hands of the military class, there are strong injunctions to leave the civil administration to the sacerdotal tribe, and Menu abounds with texts favourable to that nation, where the seats of justice are filled by holy Brahmins.

‘ Although the intermarriage of different classes be now unlawful, it was formerly permitted, or at least those who framed the present arbitrary system of castes feigned it to have been so, in times anterior to the written law, in order to account for the extraordinary number

* For this, and whatever concerns the castes, see Mr. Colebrooke's Paper on the Enumeration of Indian Classes, Art. III. As. Res. Vol. V. p. 53. Calcutta edition.'

of intermediate classes sprung from the four original divisions of mankind. These intermediate classes are reckoned by some to be thirty-six, although other authors count more than double that number, many of which, according to them, are of doubtful origin. Those which rank higher are such whose fathers are of the first class, and the mothers of the second, the third, and the fourth; then those whose fathers are of the second caste, and the mothers inferior; afterwards the children of a man of the third class, by a woman of the last; and these afford six divisions. As many proceed from the marriages of women of high caste with men inferior to themselves, and innumerable others are derived from the intermarriages of these mixed divisions, both among themselves and the pure families. These form the regular respected castes; but there are several classes of outcasts, called chandelas, pariahs, &c. who are not permitted to live in towns or villages, or to draw water from the same wells as other Hindûs; but they pay a small sum to the patel or head-man of the township, for permission to fix their hamlets near the market, and other conveniences, and are in some places bound to carry luggage for travellers, to cleanse the streets of the town or village they belong to, and to perform other mean offices.

‘ The profession of astrology, and the task of making almanacks, belong to degraded Brahmins, and the occupations of teaching military exercises and physic, as well as the trades of potters, weavers, brazers, fishermen, and workers in shells, belong also to the descendants of Brahmins.

‘ Bards, musicians, herds, barbers, and confectioners, descend immediately from the Xetries.

‘ Attendants on princes and secretaries are sometimes said to spring from the Vyassa and Sudra, but they are also sometimes considered as unmixed Sudras. These derive their rank from their fathers, but the classes most degraded are such as belong to the high castes by the mother's side only, for a man exalts or degrades his wife to his own station. Those who keep cows or horses, or drive cars, florists, pedlars, hawkers, attendants on women, catchers of animals who live in holes, are all of this lower class, but the most wretched of all, the chandela, sprung from a Brahmin mother by a Soodra, has the office of executioner, carries out dead bodies, and is in all respects a Pariah. The Natas and Naticas, who are players, dancers, and singers, are also distinct classes of the very lowest kind *. Such are the general divisions of the Hindû castes; with regard to the strictness with which each is obliged to follow its peculiar trade, there are a variety of opinions. The most commendable method by which a Brahmin can gain a subsistence, is by teaching the Vedas, assisting at sacrifices, of which, as among the Jews, a stated portion is reserved for the priests, and receiving gifts from great men. A Xetrie should bear arms; a Vaissya's proper avocations are merchandize, agri-

* Grellman was, I believe, the first who suspected that the Gypsies of Europe were a tribe of the Nats of Hindostan. Richardson's Paper, in the 7th volume of the Asiatic Researches, on the Bazeeghurs, seems to leave no doubt on the subject.

culture, and pasturage; and that of a Sudra, servile attendance. But a Brahmin who cannot subsist by his proper functions, may bear arms, till the ground, or tend cattle; and, in common with the Xetrie, practise medicine, painting, and other arts, besides accepting of menial service, receiving alms, and lending money for usury. A Vaissya may perform the duties of a Sudra, and I believe he may bear arms; and a Sudra may live by any handicraft, painting, writing, trading, and husbandry. The mixed classes may practise the trades peculiar to the mother's caste, with one exception in favour of the Brahmins, for none but one of that holy order may teach or expound the Veda, or officiate in religious ceremonies. Thus you see that the numerous exceptions to the general precepts concerning the inviolability of the castes, render those precepts less vexatious in their operation than they must otherwise have become.

‘ The distinctions between the castes and sects of Hindûs are known at first sight, by certain marks made on the forehead, cheeks, or other parts of the body, with a variety of pigments; and that this practice was not in ancient times peculiar to the Hindûs, may I think be inferred from the ninth chapter of Leviticus, where the Israelites are forbidden not only to make cuttings in their flesh for the dead, but to *print any marks upon them*. This is, indeed, far from being a singular instance, which might be taken from the Scriptures, of the truth with which the modern Hindûs have preserved to us the customs of the antique families of the world. I do not know if you will allow me to compare the ceremonies practised by the *Nazarites*, or those Israelites who wished to dedicate themselves to the Lord as Levites, in order to obtain the holiness of the tribe of Aaron, with the austerities of the Sanyassees, who, from motives of a similar nature, aspire to perform the functions, and attain to the sanctity of the holy and recluse Brahmin, although born in a lower class. But I think you would find it interesting to read the books of Moses attentively, while you are studying the Hindûs, either in your closet here or in their own country. One would throw light on the other, and you know I have often said that I thought that one reason why our countrymen have distinguished themselves so much in oriental literature and research, is, that from their infancy they are accustomed to the richness of oriental imagery, and the sublime wildness of oriental poetry, and initiated into oriental manners, by the common translation of the Bible, which, fortunately for us, was made at the time when our language was polishing into beauty, while it retained enough of its ancient simplicity to follow the divine original in its boldest flights, as well as through its tenderest passages, and thus the very phrase and manners of the cradle of all religions have been handed down to us with the pure doctrines of our own divine Apostle. But the ceremonial institutions of the Jews have passed away, and the learning of their taskmasters, the Egyptians, has perished! Hindostan alone presents the picture of former times in its priesthood, its laws, and its people. To inquire into the causes of that stability is beyond my powers, even if I possessed all the facts which would be necessary to form any theory concerning it: at the same time I cannot but attribute something to the system of castes. The climate

of India, where but little clothing and shelter are necessary, and where food is plentiful, in proportion to the wants of its inhabitants, is productive of that indolence which deadens ambition and palsies exertion, in the generality of mankind. The little wants of a Hindû are so easily supplied, that he has scarcely any spur to his industry for the sake of procuring necessities or comforts; and his ambition is checked by the reflection that if a wish to ameliorate his condition should arise, no virtue, no talent, no acquirement, can raise him to a higher rank in society than that enjoyed by his forefathers; and this reflection is embittered too by the consideration, that the crime of another may, uncoun tenanced by him, and in some cases unknown to him, deprive him of the station he enjoys, and render him and his family outcasts for ever *. Thus, by a moral action and re-action, the castes have been preserved inviolate; and if in some spots where European settlements have encouraged industry, and by holding out a high premium to ingenuity and labour, have induced some individuals of the lower orders to exert themselves, so as to acquire at least the external circumstances of rank; the jealousy of the Brahmins is always on the watch to repel such encroachments, and to render unavailing the slow but certain progress that the spirit of commerce is making towards raising the lower orders to a certain degree of importance. †

‘ When we see the poor Hindû covered with disease, scarcely sheltered from the monsoon storm, and scantily fed, leaning on his mat without a hope, and perhaps without a wish, to better his condition, but with the tranquillity of despair saying it is the *poor man's custom*, who can abstain from execrating the fetters with which his forefathers have shackled his heart and understanding? And who that sees the wealthy and useful merchant standing with joined hands at a respectful distance from the begging and profligate Sanyassee, but feels indignant at the abuse of some of the best and strongest feelings of our nature? I am not, as you know, among those who either extravagantly praise or extravagantly condemn the Hindûs or their religion. It is enough that the latter is false, to wish it exchanged for a better; but the Hindûs are men, and moved by human motives and by human passions, and never, never will a conversion be wrought among them by the present system of the missionaries.

* ‘ The 12,000 Brahmins of the coast of Malabar, who perished in consequence of the cruelty of Tippoo Sahib, in forcing them to swallow beef-broth, by which they *lost caste*, or became outcasts, many being starved to death, and many committing suicide in despair, is an instance of this.’

† ‘ In Bombay, the merchant Suncurset Bapooet built, at the expence of upwards of 12,000l., a very beautiful temple to Maha Deo. The Brahmins, who had patiently watched the building, and had consecrated the ground and the materials, discovered, on its completion, that poor Suncurset was of too low a caste to make an offering to the gods, and that, consequently, he must make a deed of gift to the priests, who then sanctified it as the holy place of Maha Deo.’

They

They must be bad judges indeed of human nature, who can suppose, that millions of men are, without a miracle, to be converted by a few hundreds of preachers, who go among them, ignorant of their language and philosophy, and even the religion they would combat.'

As these *Letters on India* contain many valuable particulars omitted in the *Journal*, and as the situation of them in the book is in a great degree arbitrary, or indifferent to their utility, we should recommend the consolidation of the two works into one; giving to the whole the form of distinct and successive letters, and frequently interposing descriptive passages between compilations of erudition. In this shape, the entire work might not display all the brilliancy of diction, or all the knowlege of native literature, which adorn and distinguish the *Allemagne* of Mad. de Stael, but in other respects the two productions would deserve to be put in parallel and in competition. The observation of Mrs. Graham is more pervasive and complete; she does not overlook the face of nature, nor the monuments of antiquity, nor the manners of the multitude: while Mad. de Stael confines her attention to matters that form the conversation in the genteel world. Mrs. Graham's knowlege of the subjects investigated is also more various and profound; she is a botanist, an antiquary, and a critic in literature and art: her descriptive sketches are more picturesque and poetical; and her map of human society, though not etched with such epigrammatic sharpness, is more comprehensive and complex. If Mad. de Stael be the more keen, witty, and lively, Mrs. Graham is the more original, judicious, and penetrating commentator; and it must be remembered that her way was not smoothed by previous investigation, nor her decisions prepared by common consent.

ART. V. *Journal of a Voyage in 1811 and 1812 to Madras and China*; returning by the Cape of Good Hope and St. Helena; in the H. C. S. The Hope, Captain James Pendergrass. By James Wathen. Illustrated with Twenty-four Coloured Prints, from Drawings by the Author. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Nichols and Co., and Black and Co. 1814.

TO Mrs. Graham's truly intelligent accounts of India, which we have noticed in the preceding article, this work constitutes an agreeable and illustrative supplement; and praise is due to the Directors of the East-India-Company for the liberality with which they excepted this picturesque traveller from the ban of the empire; — from those restrictive regulations, which resist the introduction of unemployed Europeans into the Company's territories in the East. A timid and mistrustful policy may have

have been necessary when the French were in possession of Pondicherry, and were furnishing drill-serjeants and engineers to the native powers in the disguise of artisans and artists: but now that our enemies do not trade to the Dekkan, that our native population is universally well-affected to government, and that factious or hostile individuals are unlikely to intrude, the discipline may expediently relax which hitherto refused passports to the curious emigrant. We are even inclined to believe that a more extensive British colonization of Hindustan might safely be patronized; and that many forms of commerce might be suffered to devolve on independent individuals, the Company placing rather its own profits in the levy of custom-house duties, as is the usage of other sovereigns.

Some persons, says Dr. Spurzheim, have the organ of migration; or, in other words, a natural disposition to change of place. They are very powerfully delighted, no doubt, by the presence of visible imagery: but, having memories which recall it faintly or imperfectly, they thirst for a renewal of the delight in the presence of nature itself. Mr. Wathen appears to be a person of this class, or description; he has sought out, as the preface informs us, all the more interesting scenery of England and Wales; and he has repeatedly, as a pedestrian tourist, visited and drawn most of the grand and beautiful objects in Scotland and Ireland. During the peace of 1802 he had projected a peregrination into France: but the death of a relation having detained him at home until the recommencement of hostilities, he listened to the proposal of his friend Captain Pendergrass to undertake with him, in the *Hope*, a voyage of amusement to the East Indies. The chairman of the East-India-Company, William Astell, Esq. having been consulted, gave every facility to an enterprize likely to afford not only a graceful and amusing occupation to the individual applicant, but, as he was known to be a skilful draftsman, calculated to diffuse over a wide circle the pleasure and instruction of his observations; and the public are now permitted to profit by the result of the expedition. Lord Valentia was the first, and the present author is the second British tourist, who appears to have visited Hindustan from the mere motive of liberal curiosity.

Chapter I. carries the reader from London to Dover, Portsmouth, the Land's-end, Portosanto, and Madeira; it is drawn up in the form of a journal, and notices the new phenomena which occur, such as flying fish, dolphins, and water-spouts. — Chapter II. describes Funchal, the Cape, the Mosambique Channel, the isles of Mayatta and Ceylon, and the view of Madras from the sea, of which a pleasing coloured sketch is given. — The third relates the landing in Madras, the visit to
Fort

Fort Saint George; (of which a view is inserted,) the Custom-house, the Supreme Court, the palaces, mausoleums, schools, and temples, which adorn this striking city; and some processions and other ceremonies of the natives. The first impression is well painted :

‘ As our continuance at Madras would be but for a short time, I was desirous to see as much of it, and of the neighbouring large villages, as possible. Notwithstanding my predilection for pedestrian exercise, and which my late disuse of it made still more desirable, I was under the necessity, partly on account of the extreme heat, but more in compliance with etiquette and the custom of the place, to hire a palanquin and bearers to carry me in my visits. My dubash soon procured this convenience; and the first use I made of it was to call on my friend Captain Bisse, at his office in the Fort. I found it at first rather disagreeable to be borne by men in this vehicle; but use soon reconciled me to it. From the Fort, where I found the Captain waiting for me, we proceeded in his carriage to his country-house in the village of St. Thomé (or Thomai), by a delightful road shaded from the sun by large trees. This house was built by Colonel Capper, the geographer; and, as it affords a fair specimen of such buildings in this country, though it is much superior to what are generally called garden-houses, a short description may not be disagreeable to the reader. The style of architecture is peculiar to the country and climate. The entrance is ornamented by an elegant portico, supported by pillars, from which a magnificent viranda is continued round the building. This is the feature which externally distinguishes the eastern mode of constructing residences. All the pillars which bear the roof of this colonnade, as well as those supporting the portico, are covered with the chunam, which gives them the appearance of polished marble. In the interior the floors are covered with rattan mats. The windows are not glazed, but are furnished with a kind of curtain formed of the sweet-scented koosa grass, and drawn up on rollers: during the hot winds these are let down, and continually watered, which operation keeps the rooms cool, and the air, passing through the koosa mat, diffuses an agreeable odour. In the dining and sitting apartments there are also machines fixed at the top, called *punkas*, which are large fans, kept in continual motion overhead, producing an effect very agreeable and refreshing. Every church, court of justice, and all places of public resort, are furnished with the punka. Dinner was served at seven o'clock in a splendid saloon, lighted up by numerous lamps burning cocoa-nut oil; and we were attended by many servants, all dressed in the eastern costume. After a very agreeable evening, I was taken to my apartments in the Black Town, in Mr. Bisse's carriage, at eleven o'clock. I could not help ruminating a long time, before sleep visited me, on the strange scenes I had in so short a time witnessed; on the different appearance of the human character in different climates; and on the diversity of manners, customs, and opinions, prevailing among the descendants of Adam.

‘ The houses in Madras, as well as the garden-houses in the country, are all flat-roofed, and very seldom of more than one story in height. People often give their entertainments on those roofs, where the guests sit covered with an awning. The Bungalows are inferior residences, with a thatched roof of cocoa or palm-tree leaves, having invariably a viranda; and these dwellings are very frequently constructed with great taste and elegance.

‘ The population of Madras, including the neighbouring villages, must be very great. Those villages are, at all times, so crowded with people, that they resemble the country towns in England during their fairs. The Black Town at Madras is inhabited by the aboriginal Hindoos, Portuguese, English, Chinese, Persians, Arabians, Armenians, and natives of almost all the other eastern nations.

‘ The morning after my visit to Mr. Bisse, I sallied out at five o'clock, and directed my course to the village of St. Thomé. I proceeded from the Black Town, along the esplanade, passed by one of the bazars, or market-places, and in about half an hour's walk along a most delightful road, reached the Governor's palace. In the lawn the grooms were exercising several strings of beautiful Arabian horses. Here I had an opportunity of taking a sketch of the Banqueting-house, erected by Lord Powis when he was Governor of this Presidency. It is a handsome building, of the Ionic order; and is said to be an exact copy of the Temple of Pæstum near Naples. From this place the road leads by the Nabob of Arcot's palace and gardens. This retreat is embosomed in trees, and almost concealed from the traveller's gaze. When I approached the entrance into the Nabob's grounds, several noble elephants were brought out for exercise, objects equally new and interesting to an European. These creatures appeared in high condition, and were attentively obedient to every word, and even motion of their conductors; some of them were twelve feet in height. I had been informed that the Nabob frequently let out his elephants for hire, to swell the pomp and grandeur of marriage processions in the neighbourhood — and this I afterwards witnessed. — After a very pleasant walk of several miles, I returned to the Black Town before breakfast. The remainder of the day was spent in making observations on the scene before me, — displaying the hurry and bustle incidental to a large city, and acted by persons who, in the eyes of a spectator accustomed only to the crowds of Cheapside or of Fleet-street, would have appeared to be in masquerade. Tall men, with black faces, immense turbans, large ear-rings, white muslin robes, and red slippers, moving along with a singular gait, mingled with others in the different costumes of almost all the nations in the world, formed a picture so whimsical and surprising, that it required some effort in the mind to believe it a reality. While I sat under a viranda, gazing at this varying spectacle, and musing on the different destinies of nations and of men, I was recalled from my reverie by my friend Mr. H. the chief officer of the Hope, who asked me to come and “take tiffin” with him. On requiring an explanation of this term, new to me, I was answered, that, as the formal dinner-hour was, among people of consideration in India, very late, it was become an universal custom to take a refreshment about one or two o'clock;

o'clock ; and this refreshment is called tiffin. It is in fact the real dinner ; consisting of fish, curries, meat, fruit, porter, wines, &c. We took our repast at the hotel, a large and handsome building in the Black Town, well frequented by the gentlemen in the Company's service. Here we were annoyed by fellows who carried about toys and trinkets for sale. The most curious articles they produce are made of petrified tamarind wood. This wood is found in immense quantities in the village of Treevickery, near Pondicherry, where it seems many hundred tamarind trees are seen on and in the ground, and in the bed of a river, completely petrified. The specimens we saw were very beautiful, and capable of the highest polish.'

The fourth chapter narrates an excursion to Conjeveram ; and a drawing of the great pagoda there is given, as also the scenery visible from its pinnacle. A temple at Paramatour, an Armenian church, and a Rajah's palace at Chingleput, are described, and the last is engraved.

Chap. V. depicts oriental manners, as exemplified at a merchant's dinner, by the dancing-girls, in the public punishments, and in the methods of irrigation. The view of a Bramin's tomb near Pondicherry adorns this portion of the narrative. — Chapter VI. treats of the mythology of the Hindus, and might have been decorated with representations of their idols : but it is apparently rather in landscape than in figures that the author has exercised his pencil. — The seventh chapter describes manners, customs, marriages, funerals, adoptions, castes, dress, jewels, and intoxicating drinks. — The eighth returns to the local description of Madras, and gives information about the mint, the coins, the method of keeping accounts, the exports and imports, the prices of provisions, the rates of carriage, and other pecuniary or commercial details. — Chapter IX. brings the author to Pulo-penang, of which newly colonized island he supplies four distinct and striking views.

The tenth chapter is allotted to the straits and town of Malacca, of which two views are subjoined. — The eleventh describes Macao, of which we have four views ; and the Bocca Tigris, of which we find two views. Is not this name a barbarism founded on the ignorance of the early navigators ; do the Chinese acknowledge the estuary by any such appellation ?

Chapter XII. relates to Canton, and contains two views taken on the spot. The description of a Chinese dinner at the house of a rich merchant may amuse our readers :

' We were invited on the 20th of February to a grand dinner at the house of a distinguished hong-merchant, of the name of *Mauk-gua*. This personage transacted business with the Company to an immense annual amount. The merchant resided at a splendid mansion, nearly adjoining the European Factories. His warehouses were very extensive, and occupied a large space of ground. About six

o'clock the company began to assemble; it consisted of all the gentlemen of the Factory, the India captains and their principal officers, foreign merchants and Mandarins, the friends of Macao and others, in the whole to the number of eighty persons. We were all received in a large anti-chamber by Maik-qua in person: to whom every stranger was introduced in due form. At seven o'clock we were shown into the dining-saloon, which was lighted up with elegant lamps; and here I met again with my pleasant fellow-voyager and ship-mate, Hamagge, the Persian merchant, after a separation of many days. The table was covered with a profusion of costly delicacies, dressed according to the mode of several other nations as well as the Chinese. On one side of the saloon, the curtains opened, and discovered an elegant theatre richly decorated. The performers entered; and a play, or sing-sang, commenced. The music was loud and harsh; but the company in general paid much more attention to the exquisite dishes on the table than to the play, although the players exerted themselves to the utmost to excite the notice and obtain the applause of their auditors. I confess that I, also, had so bad a taste, or was so hungry, that I could not discover the least beauty in the poetry, excellence in the acting, or harmony in the music, and I had somewhat allayed the appetite which the sight and smell of soups made of *birds' nests* and *sharks' fins* had occasioned.

‘ These soups, as well as most of the Chinese cookery, were served up in small upright porcelain dishes. I tasted the soups, and found them palatable and highly seasoned; but, as they are said to be stimulants of a particular nature, I refrained from indulging my taste, and made my dinner of some fine fish, and the substantial English dishes of roast beef, and ham and fowls. Some excellent pastry and curious confectionary succeeded; and the feast was concluded with a desert of fruit, among which were fine large grapes, and deep-coloured Mandarin oranges of a most exquisite flavour. The wines were Madeira and claret; but the Chinese gentlemen preferred their own *sam-soo* to the European wines. The *sam-soo* is a strong fiery spirit, and is said to be very unwholesome to an European constitution.

‘ I had now leisure to attend to the sing-sang, and the exertions of the sons of Thespis — “ the brief abstract and chronicles of the times;” but I soon perceived that these heroes of the stage had never heard Hamlet’s instructions to the players, or, if they had, they had not profited; for “ they so strutted, and bellowed, as if Nature’s journeymen had made men, and not made them well, they imitated humanity so abominably!” Yet there was a fable, a plot, and a catastrophe, to be distinguished even by us, who were totally unacquainted with the language. Could an intelligent Chinese discover as much in our most celebrated pieces; in our Hamlets, our Othellos, and our Richards? I am afraid he would be tempted to call them, as we did the sing-sang, “ a tiresome bore!” Music, however, being the universal language of Nature, is as universally understood. But if the sounds we heard were delightful, or even tolerable, to the Chinese, their auditory nerves must have been very differently constructed from those which compose the European organs of hearing; for

for nothing could be more harsh and discordant, than the noise proceeding from Mauk-qua's orchestra.

' The fable of the piece represented, as I understood it from the action, and the information of those sitting near to me, as follows : A governor of a province at a great distance from the capital having a beautiful daughter, bestowed her upon the son of a Mandarin in his province, who was the next in authority to the governor, and who, under professions of the utmost devotion and friendship to his superior, concealed a heart full of baseness, envy, and avarice. He had no sooner obtained the daughter of the governor for his son, than he began to employ all his art and finesse to destroy the credit of his friend at court, and to render his authority contemptible in the country. Forged complaints were continually sent to the Emperor's ministers of the mal-administration of the governor, and the oppression he exercised towards those over whom he presided. The son, whose disposition was the reverse of his father's, with the utmost humility, endeavoured to check his schemes with intreaties, and even gentle remonstrances, sometimes hinting at the fatal consequences to his father and himself in case of a discovery ; but without the least effect. At length the repeated complaints which the treacherous Mandarin continued to send to court reached the Emperor's ears, who in consequence ordered the governor to come to Peking to answer for his conduct. His false friend now threw off the mask, and boldly stood forth as his accuser, accompanied by others whom he had suborned, whose evidence bore down the assertions of the governor, who had relied upon the zeal and integrity of the Mandarin, but chiefly upon his own innocence, for his defence. He was condemned to lose his head, and the treacherous Mandarin was rewarded with his office. Hitherto his schemes had succeeded, and his utmost wish was obtained ; for his whole aim was to succeed to the government by the destruction of his friend. His virtuous son was, however, inconsolable ; and though his filial piety suppressed, it could not extinguish his emotions. There was one individual, a Mandarin also of some consequence in the province, who had silently observed the conduct of the false friend towards the governor, but not with indifference. When this person was told what had happened at Peking, and that the traitor had been appointed governor, he immediately collected a certain number of the most considerable men in the province, and repaired to court with a petition in favour of the condemned chief. They arrived just in time ; for the preparations for his execution were finished, and he on the point of being led to the fatal spot where it was to take place. The good Mandarin threw himself at the Emperor's feet, loudly asserting the innocence of the victim ; he produced his respectable witnesses, many of them known to the ministers for men of honour and probity. The execution was stayed ; the prisoner pardoned, and reinstated in his government ; and his vile accuser, who had remained at Peking to enjoy the destruction of his friend, was seized, tried, and condemned to suffer death.

' It was now that the son displayed his filial piety and heroic virtue ; he found means to visit his father in his dungeon, changed cloaths with him, and remained in his place, while the basest of criminals

minals left him to his fate, and fled to the Wilds of Tartary. The deception was not discovered by the officers of Justice, who led the son to the place of execution, where the finisher of the law took off his head with one dextrous stroke of his scymitar. The head actually fell on the stage, the body staggered a few steps, and fell also, covering the floor with blood. How this was done, I was not informed; but I was assured that the performer received no damage. Thus ended the Chinese Tragedy, the pious fraud having been discovered when it was too late. A kind of epilogue was recited in praise of filial duty, and inculcating obedience to parents, even to death.

‘Although poetical justice is not observed in this drama, the moral it enforces is popular among the Chinese. The passion of love is seldom the subject of their dramatic pieces; but conjugal infidelity is often brought on the stage, and exemplary punishment is inflicted on the guilty party.

‘When the play at the hong-merchant’s was concluded, I observed that two of his Mandarin guests were fast asleep; and a young Englishman had, by taking “potations pottle deep,” brought his spirits into such a pitch of riotous elevation, that he made more noise than the sing-sang, and was much more troublesome.’

The thirteenth chapter continues the account of the Chinese, and exhibits their genteel classes as secret unbelievers in the religion of the people, whose ceremonies they nevertheless attend. — The fourteenth narrates the passage home, and contains a view taken in the Bocca Tigris, and two others drawn in Saint Helena.

From the specimens of text which have been given, it will be perceived that the author displays in every thing a picturesque turn of fancy, and is attracted on all occasions by the visible imagery which surrounds him. Both by his descriptions and his sketches, he has added to our knowledge of Madras and its neighbourhood, of Pulo-penang, and of Canton; and he will be followed by the reader and the *gazer* with much gratification, and little fatigue.

Many hints scattered in the narrative lead us to surmise that only a select portion of Mr. Wathen’s portfolio has here been laid before the public; and we wish that sufficient encouragement may be given to these tasteful efforts of his pencil, to justify the appearance of more numerous drawings. Geography, especially, can be taught so much faster and more permanently by the pencil than the pen, that it is happy, when the tourist is alike ready and accomplished in the use of either.

ART. VI. *Greece; a Poem, in Three Parts; with Notes, Classical Illustrations, and Sketches of the Scenery.* By William Haygarth, Esq. A.M. 4to. pp. 310. and Nine Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. G. and W. Nicol. 1814.

A QUARTO volume of poetry, prose, and painting, relative to Greece, would in the days of our ancestors have been considered as a threefold prodigy indeed: but we are now so accustomed to breakfast at Thebes and dine at Athens, with our classical countrymen, that curiosity begins even in these attractive regions, to lose something of its keenness. In saying this; however, we are obviously alluding only to those readers who (like ourselves) have devoured all the various food of this kind which, in the last five or six seasons, has been set before them.

The present work deserves to be placed among the foremost of those productions, in which the English of the nineteenth century have illustrated antiquity by a comparison with modern Greece, and have thus reflected great honour on the literary spirit of our remote but not unknown island: the "*Spiritus Graiae tenuis camæna*" can indeed only in modesty be adopted as the character of many of the works in question. An extensive and profound acquaintance with the Grecian authors, whether historical, poetical, or miscellaneous, distinguishes them; and the notes to the volume before us could have been the composition solely of an accomplished scholar. In the text, he has chosen the measure of blank verse; and he appeals to the authority and example of some of our best poets to sanction his choice. On this question we shall not dilate; every age has its favourite fancies in matters of taste; and we think that we discover, in the character of the present age (considered, we mean, in several of its propensities,) something favourable to the gravity and dignity, not to say the occasionally prosaic tone, of blank verse:—but it will be more to the purpose to examine how Mr. Haygarth has acquitted himself in the task which he has undertaken, than to dwell any longer on the nature of the undertaking itself. The first passage that we shall select is the description of the scenery and battle of Thermopylæ; the opening of which is evidently very lame and unfinished, but which improves wonderfully as it proceeds:

‘ *This plain, which here so wide expands, o’erspread
With wood, and water’d by unnumber’d springs
Which gush from yonder mountains, soon contracts
Into a narrow path, where scarcely thou
Canst drive thy yoked car, and winds between
The gloom of shaggy cliffs, and the deep roar
Of billows; there the gallant warrior stood,*

Leonidas, and marshal'd with his spear
 The band of his embattled countrymen ;
 They round their chieftain gather'd, as the storm
 Spreads gloomily around the mountain's breast.
 The war-trump sounded. — Thou hast seen the might
 Of fierce Salampria roll his win'try tide
 Over thy fields ; so burst th' invading bands,
 A torrent, on thy fathers ; thou hast seen,
 Upon Kisavo's height, the hunted boar
 Rush with blind fury on the serried points
 Of pike and jav'lin ; so the hero turn'd
 His dauntless bosom to the iron edge
 Of battle. Long and doubtful was the fight ;
 Day after day the hostile army pour'd
 Its choicest warriors, but in vain — they fell,
 Or fled inglorious. Foul treachery
 At last prevail'd ; a steep and dang'rous path,
 Known only to the wand'ring mountaineers,
 By difficult ascent led to the rear
 Of thy heroic sires. The morning dawn'd —
 And the brave Chieftain, when he rais'd his head
 From the cold rock on which he rested, view'd
 Banner and helmet, and the waving fire
 From lance and buckler, glancing high amidst
 Each pointed cliff and copse which stretch along
 Yon mountain's bosom. Then he saw his fate ;
 But saw it with an unaverted eye :
 Around his spear he call'd his countrymen,
 And with a smile that o'er his rugged cheek
 Pass'd transient, like the momentary flash
 Streaking a thunder-cloud — “ But we will die”
 (He cried) “ like Grecians ; we will leave our sons
 A bright example ; let each warrior bind
 Firmly his mail, and grasp his lance, and scowl
 From underneath his helm, a frown of death
 Upon his shrinking foe ; then let him fix
 His firm unbending knee, and where he fights,
 There fall.” — They heard, and on their shields
 Clashing the war-song with a noble rage,
 Rush'd headlong in the conflict of the fight,
 And died, as they had liv'd, triumphantly.
 Deeply impress this tale upon thy breast ;
 And when thy country calls thee from thy plains
 To fight for liberty, remember those
 Who bled, unconquer'd, with Leonidas !’

This story (well known to every Englishman) is supposed to
 be quite new to one of the unhappy and oppressed Greeks
 whom the poet meets in this district : but really we observe
 such a great dissonance in the accounts of different travellers as
 to the knowlege, spirit, and character of this highly interesting
 and

and pititable nation, that we scarcely know how to judge of the poetical verisimilitude of the ignorance here imagined. We are inclined to regard it, however, as quite *in keeping*; and here we may observe that nothing can be more harmonious and pretty than the *brown* tint of the pleasing engravings of this volume, made from drawings taken on the spot, by the author, and which certainly in some respects display the facility of a master: but does this tint accord with the

—— “*bluest* skies that harmonize the whole,”

in a passage quoted from *Childe Harold* by the present author? However this may be, we have been much interested by the plates before us; and, taken together with the poetical descriptions and the classical illustrations, they form a very complete Grecian Traveller's Vade Mecum.

We now turn to the *described* prospect of Athens. The first line is again flat and unpromising:

‘*Let us ascend yon craggy eminence,
And view the glorious scene which opens round
Far as the eye can wander. From the plain,
Cecropia's citadel uprears its brow,
Rugged, and crown'd with circumambient walls
And glitt'ring temples; at its rocky base
The shatter'd wrecks of ancient days repose,
Half-sunk in shadow, capitals and shafts,
Porches and monuments, the sculptur'd pomp
Of pediments, tow'rs and triumphal arcs,
And marble fanes, and mould'ring theatres.
Imagination, kindling at the view,
Throws o'er the varied prospect the clear light
Of former ages; the still solitudes
Once more are peopled, and the sacred bands
Of poets and of sages seek again
Their shady groves and marble porticos.
Here, from the rocky Pnyx, the eloquence
Of Athens lighten'd over Greece, and wing'd
Her thunders; I behold her orators
Gath'ring their robes, and pointing to the shores
Whose billows lave the tombs of those who bled
For liberty. Here, ling'ring on the banks
Of pure Ilissus, underneath the shade
Of aged planes, the philosophic few
Apart retire, to hang upon the lips
Of Wisdom's son. There, on the marble steps
Of the vast stadium's mound, range over range,
Assembled multitudes gaze silently,
In breathless expectation, on the throng
Of combatants striving for mastery
In fight, in wrestling, or in fervid course.*

There

There stands Hymettus, flinging far around
 His dark arms to the main, whilst at his feet
 I trace a gleaming line of steeds and cars,
 And mailed warriors guiding with their spears
 The serried phalanxes to Marathon.
 Now westward turn your gaze, and see amidst
 Yon olive-woods, whose broad and verdant belt
 Invests the plain, the consecrated groves
 Of Academus, where Philosophy,
 With finger press'd upon his wither'd lip,
 Leads by the hand a stole-clad group to hear
 From Plato's mouth his heav'nly eloquence.
 Thence further glancing, let your eye repose
 Upon the distant mountains whose dark range
 Bounds the wide prospect, and exulting flash
 When on yon pointed peak, Ægaleos,
 It views, or seems to view, the Persian king
 Thrice leaping from his throne, as he beholds
 His shatter'd navy dark'ning the broad wave
 Of Salamis. Now strain your utmost sight
 To Corinth, and the hills of Pelops' isle,
 Which on the amber sky of ev'ning float
 Like summer clouds; thence homeward turning, view
 The wide Saronic sea, broken in capes,
 In headlands, and in gulphs, Piræus' Bay,
 And bleak Munychia; mark its golden breast
 Studded with purple isles, and overhung
 With marble temples, to the level ray
 Of sunset gleaming, till it melts in gloom
 Beyond the shadow of Ægina's rocks,
 Amidst the dark Ægean's distant surge.

Much of the above is in a good strain of poetry: but much also is in the style of a Blank-Verse-Guide to Athens and the Environs. When we come to the Temple of Theseus, we have something of a higher mood:

' Pause on the tomb of him who sleeps within,
 Fancy's fond hope, and Learning's fav'rite child,
 Accomplish'd Tweddell — but weep not, his death
 Was kind although untimely, for he rests
 Upon the shores to Taste and Genius dear.
 To him in youthful dreams the Grecian Muse
 Deign'd nightly visitation, breathing soft
 Her heav'nly melodies upon his ear;
 He own'd her pow'r, and when his slumbers view'd
 Her beauteous form bending with loosen'd vest,
 And tresses discompos'd upon her lyre,
 And heard the well-known accents of her voice
 Falt'ring despair, he left his native isle,
 Join'd in her faint embrace his tears with her's,
 And died. — She guards his sacred dust, and mourns

His early doom, and leads with tender care,
On each returning year, the solemn choir
Of youths, and virgins, to his silent grave.

‘ Hence slow descending to the plain, we tread:
On sacred ground, and press the mingled dust
Of heroes and philosophers and bards.
Far, far beneath they sleep, nor does a stone
Or marble column rear its head to shew
The spot where now they moulder; the Greek drives
His yoked oxen, and with careless step
Leans o’er the share, and carols as he guides
Th’ obliterating furrow o’er their graves.’

The successive fates and fortunes of Athens, under its various unworthy conquerors, are well shadowed out, in the common representations of a vision at the end of this second canto; and from the third we shall quote the address of the poet to the rival city, the stern unpolished Sparta. We sympathize here in all his sentiments and reflections: but certainly his introductory passages are not uniformly successful:

‘ Long passes, winding underneath the gloom
Of crags, and wood-rob’d mountains, cleft abrupt
In precipice, and torrents dashing white
Their wint’ry stream across the dang’rous path,
Mark the bleak bulwarks of Laconia’s land.
Through these defiles the march of hostile men
Ne’er pass’d unseen; upon a rocky height
Freedom kept guard, and when her trumpet blew
The loud alarum, all her warlike sons
Clasp’d on their burnish’d helmets, pois’d their spears,
And mark’d the lightning of her eye, to guide
The storm of battle on th’ invading host.

‘ Stern were her sons — Upon Eurotas’ bank,
Where black Taygetus o’er cliff and peak
Waves his dark pines, and spreads his glist’ning snows,
On five low hills their city rose; no walls,
No ramparts clos’d it round; its battlements
And tow’rs of strength were men, high-minded men,
Who heard the cry of danger with more joy
Than softer natures listen to the voice
Of pleasure; who with unremitting toil
In chase, in battle, or athletic course,
To fierceness steel’d their native hardihood,
Who sunk in death as tranquil as in sleep,
And hemm’d by hostile myriads, never turn’d
To flight, but closer drew before their breasts
The massy buckler, firmer fix’d the foot,
Bit the writh’d lip, and where they struggled fell.

‘ And yet the Muse shall raise no song of grief
For Sparta’s children; she can pass unmov’d

Amidst her desolation, nor bewail
 The blow that laid her prostrate in the dust.
 For she remembers, that her laws were fram'd
 To blast and not to cherish the young germ
 Of feeling, to repress Affection's tear,
 And crush each tender charity; she knows
 That all her sons were deaf to Wisdom's voice,
 Breathing the precepts of Philosophy,
 And that the lyre of eloquence and song
 Sounded for them in vain. She reads appall'd
 That with malignant rage they led the shock
 Of mailed war amidst the sylvan scenes
 Where Fancy dwelt, and blew with insult rude
 The trump of Discord in the marble schools
 Where Science gather'd her Athenian sons.
 The Muse's harp is silent — Warriors sing
 The dirge of those who sleep in Sparta's tombs.

‘ They sleep — but still their spirit walks the earth;
 Their martial shouts are heard from Maina's rocks,
 Where still unconquer'd thousands rally round
 The spear of Grecian Freedom.’

Notwithstanding the discouraging ideas of most modern writers on this problematical subject of ‘Grecian Freedom,’ we cannot help cherishing the fond idea that the land of the wise, the just, and the brave, will yet be revisited by some portion of the sacred spirit of its old inhabitants; and that our descendants of the second or third race at least may see the revival of those heroic struggles for freedom, which yet form the astonishment and the delight of every ingenuous mind. It is at all events “*gratissimus error*.” Let us hear the present author, and our immortal Milton, on the subject:

‘ I have ventured to predict in poetry what I certainly should not be so hardy as to foretell in prose — the moral regeneration of Greece. It was, however, a subject to which the imagination of Milton, always warmed by the recollections of genius and the admiration of liberty, loved to recur. “*Quod si mihi (he exclaims) tanta vis dicendi accepta ab illis et quasi transfusa inesset, ut exercitus nostros et classes ad liberandam ab Ottomanico tyranno Græciam, eloquentiæ patriam, excitare possem, ad quod facinus egregium nostras opes pene implorare videris, facerem profecto id quo nihil mihi antiquius aut in votis prius esset. Quid enim vel fortissimi olim viri vel eloquentissimi gloriosius aut se dignius esse duxerunt quàm vel suadendo vel fortiter faciendo ελευθερῆς καὶ αὐτονομῆς παιεσθαι τῆς Ἑλλάδας?* Verùm et aliud quiddam præterea tentandum est, meâ quidem sententiâ longe maximum ut quis antiquam in animis Græcorum virtutem, industriam laborum, tolerantiam, antiqua illa studia dicendo suscitare atque accendere possit.” *

* * Epist. Famil. ad Leonard. Philaram Atheniensem.’

‘ In one particular the Greeks may be said to be reviving : they begin to pay attention to literature.’

We regret our inability to insert the whole of Mr. Haygarth's interesting extracts from his journal, (which we highly praise him for publishing as he wrote it, thus conveying his impressions on the spot,) relative to the subject of modern Greek literature ; a combination of words which, a few years ago, would have been a perfect contradiction. We cannot, however, refrain from inserting, for the benefit of any future labourer in this new field of study, what the author calls a very imperfect account of Greek books of modern date, but which we have no doubt will, as he hopes, assist the reader in forming an estimate of the present state of learning in Greece :

‘ There are three universities in Italy to which the Greeks are sent for instruction, at Padua, Pisa, and Bologna ; but those sent to these places are almost always destined for the study of medicine.

‘ In Venice there are two printing presses established by two Greeks of Ioannina, for printing books in the Romaic tongue. There is also in Venice a Greek church, and school for the ancient Greek.

‘ In Trieste there is a printing-press where books in the Romaic tongue are printed.

‘ About fifteen years ago, a printing-press was established at Constantinople for Greek and Romaic books. It is in the house of the Patriarch.

‘ In Vienna there is also a press, established about thirty years ago by Giorgio Vendotti, of Zante ; at which more Romaic books are printed than in any of the other places. There is also a school for the Greek language, maintained by about thirty Greek families, who reside in Vienna. About five Greek families in Vienna have received titles of nobility : but the Greeks had not the free exercise of their religion there, before the reign of Joseph II.

‘ In many towns of Austria and Hungary, there are Greek churches and schools ; as at Pest, Peterwaradin, Tokai, Zenta, Temeswar ; at Cronstadt and Hermanstadt, in Transylvania. In these towns there are generally eight or ten Greek families.

‘ It must be remarked that these emigrations have taken place mostly within these forty years, about which time the Turkish government became more oppressive.

‘ The original works in the Romaic language are chiefly on ecclesiastical affairs. The sermons of Elias Myniati, of Cephalonia, are in most repute ; those of Theotoki of Corfu, and of Damasceno, are also admired.

‘ There is a work preparing for the press, but not yet published, by Vicentius Damodos, of Cephalonia, who died fifty years ago. It treats of Physics, Logic, Rhetoric, and Theology, in 4 vols.

‘ The Ecclesiastical History, (in 4 vols. quarto, printed in Vienna, 1795,) besides treating of the affairs of the Church, gives a summary of political events, and a catalogue of modern authors, classed according

according to the centuries in which they flourished. The number of authors in the eighteenth century is fifty-five. The author's name is Milesius of Ioannina.

‘ This same author has also written a large work on ancient and modern Geography, which is much esteemed. It was originally printed in folio, and is now reprinted in quarto.

‘ Eugenius Vulgari, a native of Corfu, wrote a work on Logic, which is much esteemed. He left his native country owing to a quarrel with the Patriarch of Constantinople, and took refuge in Russia, where he was made Bishop of Pultowa by Catherine.

‘ Athanasius Psalidas, of Ioannina, has written a metaphysical and theological work, entitled *Ἀληθὴς Εὐδαιμονία*. He has also made a collection of songs and canzonets in the Romaic language, which he calls *Ἑρῶς ἀποτελισματα*. He is also a geographer, and is about to publish a map of Albania.

‘ Gregorius Demetriades, of Zagara, wrote a work on modern geography.

‘ The most celebrated poet is Constantinus Manus, a native of Constantinople. He has written a pastoral poem called the *Adventures of Cleanthes and Havrokóme*, *Τα κατὰ Κλέανθον καὶ Ἀβροκόμη*. His style is reckoned the most polished of any who have written in the Romaic tongue.

‘ Giacomaki Lampadario, of Constantinople, has written small poems on different subjects.

‘ Riga Velensteli has written a work on physics; I suppose, however, merely a compilation. He has published also a map of Greece, with the modern names, and a representation of all the coins and medals of the different towns.

‘ Giovanni Venizelaki wrote a History of Athens from the earliest to the latest times. The work was never printed; the manuscript was bought by an Englishman.

‘ Koray, a native of Smyrna, is well known to the literary world for his translation of Strabo, and his edition of the *Æthiopics* of Heliodorus, and the treatise on Climate, by Hippocrates.

‘ There are Grammars in Italian and Romaic, French and Romaic, and Greek and Romaic, and several good Lexicons.

‘ The following is a list, as far as I could collect, of the books translated into Romaic:

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|--|--|
| • Locke on the Human Understanding, translated by a Zantiot priest, and printed in Vienna. | • Fontenelle's Plurality of Worlds. |
| • Goldsmith's History of Greece, with a continuation. | • Travels of Cyrus. |
| • Rollin's Ancient History. | • Travels of Anacharsis. |
| • Millot's History of Greece. | • Telemaque. |
| • Montesquien. | • Some of the Comedies of Goldoni. |
| • Parts of Rousseau. | • A Selection of the Operas of Metastasio, amongst which are the Themistocles in Persia, and the Achilles in Sciros. |
| • The Arabian Nights' Entertainments. | • Grammar of the Sciences, by Benjamin Martin. |

‘ The

- The Life of Peter the Great.
- The Life of Suvaroff, by Mar-
marotyri of Athens.
- Pausanias.
- Virgil, translated into Greek
Hexameters, by Eugenius
Vulgari.
- Thucydides, printed at Vienna,
with the ancient Greek on
one page, and the modern on
the other.
- The Characters of Theophrastus.
- Tasso's Gierusalemme Liberata.
- The Table of Human Life, by
Cebes.
- Cornelius Nepos.
- Ovid's Metamorphoses, into Ro-
maic prose.
- The Theorems of Archimedes ;
Euclid ; Algebra ; Trigon-
ometry ; and Conic Sections,
forming 3 vols. 8vo.
- Lavoisier's Chemistry.

We shall here bid adieu to Mr. Haygarth, acknowledging that we have been much gratified by the perusal of his work ; which, although certainly not deserving in its general character the highest poetic praise, is yet scholar-like, animated, and full of good sentiment, taste, and learning. We are delighted to see our countrymen so successfully occupied in these most liberal pursuits.

ART. VII. *An Essay on the Principles of Philosophical Criticism, applied to Poetry.* By Joseph Harpur, L.L.B. of Trinity College, Oxford. 4to. pp. 300. 1l. 1s. Boards. Rivingtons.

WITH a motto the same, if we recollect rightly, as that of an edition of Ainsworth's Dictionary, 'Ἡ τῶν λόγων κρισις πολλῆς ἐστὶ πειρασ τελευταίου ἐπιγενημα, [Longinus,] and with so large a tincture of the Aristotelian criticism as sometimes to excite a good-humoured smile, this metaphysical and very ingenious volume demands the best attention of every real scholar. We grieve to have been compelled so long to delay our notice of it : but it is not one of those "Cynthias of the minute" which die unnoticed if they are not detected in their birth : it is a classical, sound, orthodox, old Oxonian publication ; and we can fancy Tom Warton (after having cracked his joke on sundry passages) hailing it as a genuine child of Alma Mater. Well, and wisely perchance, does the author declare in his introductory sentence that 'the speculations contained in the following treatise are *entirely* founded on ancient philosophy ;' and, in consequence, we are introduced to 'the necessary and immutable relations of universal ideas,' and fancy that we are listening to the very "Square" of Metaphysics.

Now, having ventured to indulge in our smile also, we shall proceed to do all the justice which we can render to this learned, original, and acute reasoner ; and, as we might not be able to prefix so good an explanatory preface to his work as he

he has himself given, we shall transcribe such parts as are necessary to our purpose from that which is before us :

‘ The author has first considered how poetry, as a composite, may be resolved into its *matter* and its *form* ; as well the generic form, which essentially distinguishes poetry from other arts, as the specific forms, by which its productions are essentially distinguished from each other. He has then inquired into the principles on which its power depends, and has endeavoured to discover the primary constituent elements of its capital excellencies, by tracing them to the essential nature of mind in general, and of those properties of the human mind which poetry particularly addresses. — And thus, by resolving such composites as imagery, beauty, sublimity, style and others of the like complex nature into their elementary ideas, he has attempted to ascertain of how many, and of what things they are compounded ; and to show how their several characters depend on and flow from those their essential and constituent parts.

‘ In this research he has found it necessary to pursue many abstract speculations, and to confirm and elucidate his doctrines by the authorities of those philosophers of antiquity whom he has followed as his guides. Hence it has happened, that in several parts of his work, and especially in the notes and quotations which he has thought necessary to illustrate it, many things have been introduced which may appear more adapted to metaphysical or logical inquiries, than either to poetry or to criticism. — But he considered that as all art operates according to a system of rules founded on right reason ; and as truth, the object of reason, is one and universal, — all kinds of rational practice must of necessity be regulated by the general and comprehensive principles of the first philosophy ; — that common fountain of arts and sciences, from which, when traced downwards through their *effects*, they are all found to flow, and in which, when traced upwards to their *causes*, they all terminate.

‘ It is in these abstract principles alone, that the true nature and essence of any subject can be recognized. For it is only by thus investigating universal ideas, formal ratios and principles elementary, general, and fixt, that we are enabled to see with our own eyes, and to know with our own understandings. — Without such investigation, though we may happen to see and to know rightly, — yet it is with the eyes and the understandings of others. Beside this, it is certain that the more we accustom ourselves to search after and contemplate the scientific principles on which any art is founded, the more pleasure shall we receive from its finished productions. Nor are such speculations ineffectual in preparing and strengthening the mind for the investigation of subjects more important and severe.

‘ From these considerations, the author has been induced to hope that an attempt of the nature which he has now described may not be altogether unacceptable to those who employ their liberal leisure in studying, with philosophical accuracy, the original treasures of classical antiquity. Should this hope be vain, he may console himself with the reflection that critical inquiries, conducted in this logical way, give to the intellectual faculty that strong exercise, which
being

being the highest and most natural pleasure of the mind, is therefore a good worthy of being sought for its own sake, and independently of any end to the attainment of which it may conduce.

‘Hence, whatever may be the defects, or the fate of the treatise which he has ventured to offer to the perusal of the learned, he will not have reason to think his time and labour wholly misapplied.’

Assuredly, they have not been misapplied. Much in this treatise may improve the learned, and all of it will inform the ignorant. The poet may be taught to be right on principle rather than by chance; and, should he be fortunate enough (and we feel the full extent of the good fortune) to write such a line as

“Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,”

he may learn not to mistake the more refined meaning of his own effusion. These matters, perhaps, as the author seems to dread, may to some of his readers stand in need of an interpreter (ἐς δὲ ΤΟ ΠΑΝ ἑρμηνεῶν χάρις): but, for those who *will* give themselves the trouble to think about them, they cannot fail to contribute to correctness and discrimination of thought, to purity of taste, and to that exalted and keen relish of classical beauty in composition which results from the union of natural quickness of perception and just education;—from feeling, in a word, founded on reason.

Highly, however, as we estimate Mr. Harpur’s theoretical lucubrations, we are too well acquainted with the general preference given to example and illustration, not to select something from this portion of his work: but, that we may not entirely detach his arguments from his examples, we shall preface them by a short quotation from the more abstract reasonings. We have purposely selected the elucidation of one of the most popular doctrines in philosophical criticism: being conscious that it would be impossible (within our limits) to detach any of the more recondite notions from their station in the line of argument, without greatly weakening their effect, if not obscuring their intelligibility. Very creditable force and clearness distinguish the following exposition, enlargement, and application of Locke’s Philosophy:

‘As all ideas are perceptions of things;—as all things whatsoever are either particular and sensible, or universal and intellectual;—as all the former are represented by *ideas of sensation passively received*, and all the latter by *ideas of reflection actively formed*; it follows that to those two universal genera all the materials of thought may be reduced.

‘When the mind contemplates any idea, it must necessarily consider it either as *alone* and *unconnected*, or as *associated* with some other.

‘ And thus all ideas are either of *sensation* or of *reflection*, and are considered by the mind either as *alone* or *associated*.

‘ It is evident from experience, that by an universal law of nature, every thing tends towards its species, and has a predilection rather for what is homogeneous and consonant to its essence, than for what is heterogeneous and different. *

‘ Mind, it may be presumed, partakes of this common principle. Accordingly we find that it is much more affected by those ideas of reflection, representing the emotions of passion and the energies of intellect,—the genuine perceptions of mind, participating its own intellectual nature, and which itself actively recognizes—than by those ideas of mere sensation which it ~~passively~~ receives from the external impulse of objects corporeal.

‘ Yet, since things intellectual cannot be submitted to any of the senses, it is of sensible objects only that poetical images can be formed.

‘ Whence then do they derive their power of acting in so wonderful a manner on the mind,—of awakening every passion, and of calling forth all the mental energies?

‘ Surely not from their own nature, and from what they are when considered *alone*; but from the *ideas intellectual* with which they are closely and immediately *associated*.

‘ The lowing of oxen, considered merely as a sound, — that is, as an idea of mere sensation, has nothing peculiarly delightful. A man sleeping under a tree, merely as an object of sight, is no way interesting or affecting.

‘ But when such objects are associated with the intellectual ideas of mental tranquillity, innocence and moral simplicity, they excite the most agreeable sentiments of beauty and of joy:

‘ At *secura quies*, & *nescia fallere vita*,
Dives opum variarum; — at latis *otia* fundis,
Speluncæ, vivique lacus; at frigida *Tempe*,
Mugitusque boum, *mollesque sub arbore somni*
Non absunt. [Virg. Georg. L. 2. v. 467.]

‘ A flower fading when ploughed up, or poppies broken by the rain, as objects simply visual, are beheld without emotion. But when associated with the intellectual ideas of life, perception, and sentiment, they call forth those emotions, which being mental are congenial to the nature of mind, and therefore agreeably affect the passions and the fancy:

‘ *Purpureus veluti cùm flos, succisus aratro*
Languescit moriens, lassove papavera collo
Demisere caput, pluvia cùm fortè gravantur. †

‘ * The reason of this law, as given by Aristotle, is — That every thing which is consonant to nature, is therefore agreeable: *Καὶ ἐπὶ τὸ κατὰ φύσιν ἡδὺ· τὰ συγγενῇ δὲ κατὰ φύσιν ἀλλήλοις ἴσθαι, ἀπάντα τὰ συγγενῇ καὶ ὅμοια ἡδεα, ὡς ἐπιτοκλὺ· ὅμοι' αἰθέριος ἀνθρώπου, καὶ ἵππος ἵππῳ, καὶ νέος νέῳ.* Arist. Rhet. L. i. cap. 11.’

‘ † Virg. Æn. L. 9. ver. 435.’

‘ A flag

‘ A flag fixt to a long staff, or the small figure of an eagle in metal, considered as objects of sight, are neither terrific nor sublime. But when considered as military ensigns, they immediately become associated with the intellectual ideas of discord and of war, with the devastation of kingdoms, the revolutions of empires, and the destiny of mankind. Then are they sublime objects in eloquence and in poetry; — then do they affect the mind, and excite that enthusiasm which we feel, when, in Tacitus, we behold Antonius Primus, in a sedition of the troops,

‘ Conversum ad signa & bellorum Deos ;

or, when we see in Lucan the civil war characterized by the

‘ ——— infestis obvia signis

Signa, pares aquilas, ac pila minantia pilis.’

‘ Thus it is that the emotions and energies of mind are more strongly excited by ideas moral and intellectual, which are the proper perceptions of mind and analogous to its nature, than by the mere sensation of objects material, which have no such analogy.’

We regret our inability to adduce the more numerous and perhaps, in some instances, the less common, illustrations which follow.

The comparison of Homer and Virgil in their description of the God of War, (where, in both these mighty masters of their art, not only are the images of terror, glory, power, &c. &c. throughout associated with sensible objects, but the intellect is *the last thing* addressed in the poetical picture,) and the contrast drawn between them and Silius Italicus, who leaves little impression but that of “blowing horses” on the mind of the reader, are excellent in their kind. The concluding note to the whole passage requires insertion :

‘ Sometimes the intellectual ideas with which the ideas of sensation are associated, are only suggested. Thus the association of the idea of terrour, and its various modifications, with that of sound, is suggested in those admirable lines :

‘ ——— subito cùm creber ad aures

Visus adesse pedum sonitus, &c. *Æn.* L. ii. v. 371.

‘ Sometimes they are separately and distinctly expressed :

‘ Horror ubique animos, simul ipsa silentia terrent.

‘ This latter method obtains more frequently in prose. The following passage, taken from a long and excellent description of rural scenery, is an instance of its power.

‘ “ At ut editus locus erat, errores fluvii in valle monstrabat ; montes quoque ex adverso magnatum prædiis distinctos. Visebatur a dextro latere pars potissima urbis, per suos colliculos & templorum fastigia elatæ. Si oculos longius mitteres, mons Atlas inculta hyeme & sterilibus saxis, per multos vertices in nubibus fractus, *delectabat animum mutatione conspectus, & propinquam felicitatem blandius commendabat asperitatis imagine.*”

‘ This quotation is taken from the second book of the *Argenis* of Barclay, a romance (perhaps the only one in the Latin language) of great and various merit; interspersed with philosophical discussions and agreeable verses, and no less remarkable for the ingenious structure of the fable and surprising variety of the incidents, than for the elegance of the Latinity.’

What the author precisely means by the parenthesis in the last sentence, we cannot ascertain; whether, that the *Argenis* of Barclay excels all Latin composition of the kind, or that it is unique. The first assertion, it is obvious, involves a mere matter of taste. The second would be, as obviously, wrong in point of fact.

It appears to us that we could not adduce from the remainder of the volume any more useful or interesting passage than one that succeeds, at no great distance, to the selection which we have already made. We shall not pursue the inquiry which grows out of the author's ideas, nor institute any comparison in this place between the merits of the different poetical measures:—but, even if a partiality to rhyme may induce Mr. Harpur to extend his argument in some respects to too great a length, an abundance of materials for thought is furnished by that argument.

We can readily anticipate the look of surprize with which many modern readers, *not to say writers*, of admired poetry, would receive the following observations:—supposing, we mean, that by dint of personal study, or successful inquiry among the neighbours, they were made perfectly level to the comprehension of every person who could be interested in their elucidation:

‘ An English heroic verse, when regular, (for the beginning a line with a trocheus, or introducing an anapest, are licences analogous to that of inserting a spondee in the fifth place of an hexameter,) consists of five iambs.

‘ Hence, all the feet in the verse being the same, that variation which in the hexameter results from the different arrangement of different feet, cannot have place.

‘ Nor can one line differ from another in the number of its syllables, they being of necessity confined to neither more nor less than ten.

‘ The variation of the melody in our heroic verse cannot then proceed from the causes which produce that effect in the hexameter, since we see that those causes are wanting.

‘ To supply this defect, we have recourse to another principle, which is, the division of the line into two parts by a *pause*.

‘ The regular place of a pause is immediately after either the fourth, fifth, sixth, or seventh syllable in the verse.

‘ In each of these places, the pause produces a melody different from that which it produces in any of the other places.

‘ But

‘ But as all the feet in an English heroic line are of the same kind, it cannot admit any characteristical peculiarity in its *close*.

‘ To what principle then must we recur for the more important purpose of ascertaining and preserving that *distinct system of sounds, uniformly recurring at stated periods*, which is an essential character of versification ?

‘ In a single line, the structure of which is perfectly uniform, this cannot be effected.

‘ We have therefore adopted the invention of rhyme, which by introducing a distinct and characteristical melody at the close not of every line, as in the hexameter, but of every couplet, produces the effect proposed.

‘ And thus rhyme, though in its nature much inferiour to hexameter cadence, yet is founded on the same universal principle.

‘ That this principle is entitled to be considered as universal, and therefore as having its foundation in the nature of things, will more evidently appear, if on examination we find, that in ancient versification it constantly obtains ; and that in all the ancient metres, either every line, or a given number of lines, is uniformly terminated by a distinct and peculiar close.’

We omit the illustrations of this remark, because they are familiar to the scholar, and would not be universally interesting : but the succeeding reference to Cicero, and the subjoined general note, may be perused with advantage ; and, we cannot help thinking, for reasons which we have elsewhere lately given, peculiarly at the present period. If in some minds, devoted to their early studies, and biassed by the practice of an age distinguished by the purest taste in their own country, they may tend to confirm an excessive partiality for one species of versification, in others they may moderate the growing love for the opposite kind of poetry ; for that *they are opposite*, it requires little judgment and little feeling to discover :

‘ It must indeed be admitted, that in the ancient lyric measures the distinguishing melody of the close, even of a given series of lines, is often very faint and obscure ; and that in a single line it is scarcely, if at all, perceptible. In the iambic verses, used by the comic writers, they being of an uniform structure, it can have no place. Accordingly the latter are scarcely discriminated from prose. And that the former frequently owed their metrical distinction only to the song and music with which they were accompanied, we may venture to assert on the authority of Cicero : “ Notatio naturæ peperit artem. (Scil. numerorum.) Sed in versibus res est apertior ; quanquam etiam a modis quibusdam cantu remoto, soluta esse videatur oratio ; maximeque id in optimo quoque, eorum poetarum qui λυρικοί á Græcis nominantur, apparet ; quos cùm cantu spoliaveris, nuda pœné remanet oratio.”

‘ The English heroic line being of this uniform nature, its end cannot in any respect differ from its beginning or middle. Hence in blank verse, the want of those regular harmonious *closes*, often

destroys the metrical distinction, and thereby reduces verse to the level of prose. *

‘ To investigate the efficient cause of that pleasing effect which metrical modulation produces would be a very curious inquiry : — but in such a research, it would perhaps be impracticable to arrive at scientific certainty.’

The subsequent chapters of this philosophical work, as it must be styled even by the most hardy of its opponents in

‘ * It is undeniable that many passages in our best writers of blank verse, if printed as prose, would not, without some consideration, be distinguishable from it. But let English rhymed couplets or Latin hexameters be printed as prose, and their metrical distinction will be immediately and obviously manifest to every person who understands the languages. And whence does this immediate and obvious distinction result ? Undoubtedly from the regular occurrence of the rhyme in one instance, and of the hexameter cadence in the other.

‘ And why have rhyme and hexameter cadence this effect ? Because they clearly mark and distinguish a regular system of sounds articulate by the stated recurrence of an uniform and melodious *close*.

‘ When the great Milton composed his wonderful poem, the English language and English versification had not received the highest polish of which they were susceptible.

‘ In the subsequent century, the finished elegance and harmonious numbers of Pope ascertained and fixed the standard of English heroic verse. The same thing was effected among the Romans by the refined taste of Virgil, and the succeeding Latin poets had the good sense to imitate his correct harmony, rather than the rugged harshness of Lucilius, or of Ennius, or even the less perfect melody of Lucretius. Numerous English writers, even after having perused Pope’s translation of the Iliad, still assert that rhyme is too great a restraint on poetical imagination, — that it enervates heroic poetry, and that in a long poem, its monotony becomes tedious. The first of these objections may be fairly answered by comparing the structure of Homer’s hexameters with that of Pope’s rhymed couplets, and impartially considering which of the two be the greater restraint. To the other objections, the best answer is what Cicero says to those rhetoricians of his time who pretended to despise numerous composition in prose, and to prefer the harsh and ill-compacted diction of the old Roman orators, to the polished and harmonious periods of Isocrates, or of Æschines and Demosthenes : “ Hoc modo dicere nemo unquam noluit, nemoque potuit, quin dixerit. — Atque ut plane genus hoc quod ego laudo contempsisse vidcantur, — scribant aliquid vel Isocrateo more, vel quo Æschines aut Demosthenes utitur ; — tum illos existimabo non desperatione formidasse genus hoc, sed judicio refugisse.” Orat. ad Bru.

‘ On the same principle it may be truly asserted that no English poet who *could* write rhymed verses like Pope, and maintain his harmony through a long work, would employ blank verse in any composition that is not dramatic.’

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certain passages, are devoted to subjects of similar literary importance. — Of the plan and distribution of the whole we have given an idea by our extract from the introduction; from the chapter on Poetry in general we have made several selections; and we would again venture to recommend the *attentive* perusal of them to the present candidates for poetical distinction.

Mr. Harpur now proceeds to the examination of the subjects of *Beauty; Sublimity; Poetical Fiction and Mythology; Epic Poetry; and Dramatic Poetry.* — In the 8th chapter, ‘of the Nature of Style in general, and of the essential Forms and constituent Elements of *Style Poetical*,’ we are occasionally reminded, by the precision and perhaps the pedantry of some of the remarks, of our curiously original acquaintance, the far-famed Lord Monboddo; an author who, with all those acknowledged *vagaries* which have been so ridiculously magnified by the shallow wits of some of his contemporaries, deserves the study, and will then command the respect, of the scholar. — The 9th chapter treats ‘of the Influence of logical Reasoning on Poetry and Criticism,’ and concludes the performance.

We have nothing to add to our preceding observations, except a suggestion which, if it should reach the author, or any reader equally capable of carrying it into execution, we should be pleased indeed to hope might not be wholly unavailing. We mean, that a judicious abridgment of the present work would be of the greatest benefit to the young, and perchance to the old also, among the scholars of Great Britain.

ART. VIII. *Memoirs of Lady Hamilton*; with illustrative Anecdotes of many of her most particular Friends, and distinguished contemporaries. Embellished with a fine Portrait, after Romney. Crown 8vo. pp. 400. Boards. Colburn. 1815.

IN the circles of dissolute fashion, thirty years ago, who was ignorant of the name of Emma Harte? In the more recent annals of *female diplomacy*, and of our great naval hero, Nelson, who is unacquainted with Emma, Lady Hamilton? The true history of this extraordinary woman, however, is not generally, and in some points not accurately, known; and the delineation of it requires both a free and a delicate hand, in order to compromise neither the interests of truth nor those of morality and decorum. Her present biographer is anonymous, and we are not apprized of his authority in those instances in which he does not indicate the source whence he draws: yet, particularly in his statements that are connected with Naples and with Lord Nelson, he speaks in a tone of positiveness that ought to be well supported, and which seems, in many cases, to be thus

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adequately

adequately warranted. At any rate, it is clear that he is not a common temporary hack-biographer; and that nothing like *white-washing* is attempted in his narrative. Urged apparently by such motives as ought to be sacred with all writers of memoirs, he is more studious of accurate delineation than of exhibiting a flattering portrait; and, true to those correct and honourable principles which are avowed in his introduction, he endeavours to throw no veil of splendid concealment over the follies or failings of his heroine, desirous of holding her forth as a *warning* rather than as an example: thus placing as it were beacons and light-houses on those shoals, rocks, and quicksands, which are found to be so dangerous in the moral navigation of human life. In our admiration of beauty and personal accomplishments, we ought never to forget that their attractions do not justify the smallest departure from virtue; and that “love-darting eyes and tresses like the morn” have a baneful influence, when employed as lures by a contaminated mind. The Circe should therefore be unmasked, lest others, spell-bound by her charms, should not perceive the thorns and adders which lurk beneath her rose-strewn path. With strict propriety does the author before us protest against the sweeping operation of that commonly received and well-intentioned maxim, which requires us to “say nothing but what is good of the dead.” This apophthegm, which makes death, like the crown, to purge all defects, must be taken with limitations.

‘The precept of the ancients,’ it is here observed, ‘must be regarded as equivalent to the universal duty of doing strict justice to all concerning whom we may be called to give the testimony of our knowledge, and of adhering rigidly to truth, without any mixture of prejudice, in what we relate of the conduct of others, whether they are in the capacity of speaking for themselves, or are placed beyond the possibility of being affected by our praise or our censure. Were the doctrine otherwise, and did it lay survivors at all times, and in every circumstance, under the immutable obligation of concealing the obliquities of those who have been removed from this busy stage, where every action of the humblest individual has some connection with his contemporaries, and effect on posterity, history would be no better than romance, by depriving mankind of the lessons for the regulation of life, which are afforded by the contemplation of human infirmity.’—‘Virtue and vice are often so confounded in this world, through the ignorance and weakness of mankind, that to be guarded against the frequent artifices which are used to pass off the one for the other, it is necessary that both should be examined as they appear recorded in the lives of those who have distinguished themselves by their merit, or who have become notorious by their crimes. There is, besides, such a mixture of different qualities in every person, that no exact idea of any one can be obtained from a representation, in which only the general outline of character is given without a discrimination of excellences and defects.

Where these are not stated with fidelity, and balanced with judgment, the reader is misled, and the interests of truth are violated.'

It is reported, for uncertainty clouds her early history, that Lady H. owed her origin to a couple who lived together in a menial capacity in the county Palatine of Chester; that her father's name was Lyon; and that he died in 1761, leaving a young widow, and an infant daughter named Emma, wholly without support:

'In consequence of this melancholy change in her circumstances, the poor woman retired to Hawarden, in Flintshire, which was her native place, and where she was now enabled by her industry, and the kindness of friends, to maintain herself and this child, whose education was such as might be expected from the poverty of her mother's circumstances, and the little time that could be allowed from domestic occupations. In an account of herself, however, which the subject of this narrative thought proper to dictate at the request of an enterprising bookseller, for a collection of what he called "Public Characters," it is stated that she received an education superior to damsels of her condition, at the expence of the late Earl of Halifax. This was one of those instances of deception in which she was too apt to indulge, and by which she foolishly hoped to impose upon the credulity of mankind. The truth is, that all the instruction which she ever obtained in childhood, consisted in the simple article of reading, and that so very imperfectly, as to be unaccompanied by correctness in spelling, a qualification, in fact, which she never properly acquired to the end of her days, though she mixed so much with polished society, and even had an extensive correspondence.

'Yet, in justice to the energies of her mind, it should be observed in this place, that she supplied the defects of her original condition by voluntary application and uncommon diligence, at that period when gaiety and business may be supposed to furnish plausible excuses for neglecting the labour of intellectual improvement.'

We are told that at the age of twelve or thirteen she was received as a nursery-maid into the family of Mr. Thomas Hawarden, brother-in-law of the late Alderman Boydell, 'and father of the eminent surgeon in Leicester Square;' that at sixteen she visited London, having obtained a place in the service of a tradesman in St. James's market; and that her next situation was with a lady of fortune, under whose roof she had ample opportunities of indulging her love of reading, in books obtained from the circulating library for the amusement of her mistress. The effect of such reading on a young female like Emma can easily be supposed. By the false views of life which novels exhibit, by the ebullitions which they engender, and by the romantic turn which they excite, a restlessness and desire of adventure will be produced, which are often unrestrained by delicacy and virtue. Emma's vanity had not long been stimulated by this species of light reading, before she re-

moved

moved to a place which brought her charms into play, and afforded ample latitude to her inclinations. A lady who made a conspicuous figure in the circles of the fashionable world, and whose house was the resort of the lively and the dissipated, saw in the person and character of this young girl the qualities of which she was in search; while the *soubrette* was delighted with a situation which met her wishes, by placing her within the vortex of levity and pleasure.

‘ Here the day was occupied in preparations for the festivities of the evening; and those hours which should have been devoted to rest and reflection were sacrificed to scenes of dissipation.—

‘ In such a place, the dangers attending youth and beauty were multiplied by the facilities now offered of indulging that love of theatrical amusement which had already been too strongly excited; by the incessant flatteries which were addressed to a credulous ear, and the various arts that were continually adopted to charm away all apprehension of future misery, in the desire of present gratification. It was impossible that in a house like this, the charms of Emma should pass unobserved by the numerous visitors who were on terms of close intimacy with the family. To a figure of uncommon elegance, were added features perfectly regular, with a countenance of such indescribable sweetness of expression, as fixed the beholder in admiration. The airiness of her form gave a peculiar grace to her movements, and such was the flexibility of her limbs, that she might have been considered as a mountain nymph. Her agility, however, though light and sportive, had nothing in it of boisterous activity; nor in the gaiety which she supported, did there appear any of that levity which seems to court instead of repelling temptation. Among the many attractions which at this period distinguished the female of whom we are speaking, that of a very musical voice was one that could hardly fail in the situation where she was placed to excite attention and inflame vanity. Having the advantage of a good ear, aided also by a retentive memory, she was enabled to sing popular airs with considerable effect; and the opportunities which she enjoyed of frequenting places of public amusement, served to increase the passion for dramatic entertainments. The effect produced by these exhibitions, was that of adding to her love of singing a strong turn for mimicry, which was encouraged by her companions to such a degree, as to become the subject of very general conversation.—

‘ Hereby she acquired a boldness which proved the leading feature of her character through life, to which her ruin was owing in the first instance, and which confirmed her in the habits of intrigue and extravagance, so completely as to render her equally the deceiver of her own heart, while she was imposing on the credulity of others.’

Such was the commencement of Emma’s fashionable career, and with such a beginning her subsequent history too exactly agrees. Taken first from a situation of servitude by the late Admiral J. W. Payne, she next passed under the *protection* of Sir Harry Featherston; who removed her from town to figure

as the nominal mistress of Up Park, and to display her agility and elegant attitudes in various festive scenes. Short, however, was the continuance of the favours of the baronet; who soon transferred her from the seat of grandeur to the obscurity of an humble lodging, and left her to struggle with want and misery. After having fallen almost to the degraded state of an outcast in the metropolis, she attracted the observation of the notorious Dr. Graham, who exhibited her in all the simplicity of nature as the Goddess of Health, in order to illustrate his impudent lectures; and ‘thus the unhappy fair one, whose misfortunes were owing in a great measure to her lovely form and mimic powers, now became indebted to the same causes for a deliverance from the lowest state of misery.’ From this circumstance, artists soon became acquainted with her value as a model; and many exquisite pieces were painted and chiselled after this finished production of Nature’s workmanship. Among those who were most fascinated with the personal graces of our heroine, was Romney, the painter, whose pencil was constantly occupied in portraying her in almost every variety of character. We pass over the strictures which are made by the biographer on the conduct of Romney, and on the effect of the representation of meretricious objects on the canvas of the artist, in order to proceed to the next change which occurred in the life of this child of Fortune; who now succeeded, by her winning address and an air of modesty, in subduing the heart of Mr. Charles Greville, a man of fashion and gallantry. Delighted with this model of elegance, Mr. G. occupied himself in the cultivation of her talents; and, proud of the progress of his lovely scholar, he displayed her at Ranelagh, then the favourite scene of gaiety and gallantry. What follows is in part creditable to her heart.

‘Mr. Greville, who was at that time in an office of considerable distinction, at court, maintained his mistress in a style of elegance corresponding to his rank; and after making every allowance for her situation, and natural turn for expence, it must be admitted that at this period she deputed herself in a manner which gave him and his friends much satisfaction. One of her first acts, when placed in this state of splendour, was to send for her mother, who now assumed, though by what legal claim cannot be clearly ascertained, the name of Cadogan. Pleasing as it is to record this instance of dutiful respect to her parent, from whom she was never afterwards separated during a space of about twenty years, it would be still more satisfactory if the writer could detail correspondent particulars of tenderness towards the fruits of this union. There were three of these children, two girls and a boy; the names of the former were Eliza and Anne; the latter was called Charles, after his father, but the surname of each was wholly fictitious; and even the mother, who always passed for their aunt, for reasons

reasons which it would be in vain to enquire, and useless to conjecture; thought proper at this time to take upon herself the name of Harte.'

Reasons of prudence, or feelings of abated pleasure, at last induced Mr. Greville to transfer his Emma to the charge of his uncle Sir William Hamilton; who in 1789 happened to visit England on private business, and who consented to take his nephew's cast-off mistress with him on his return to his Neapolitan embassy. The events to which this incident led are well known. She soon became the wife of the ambassador, by a private marriage, figured away at the court of Naples as the favourite and confident of the voluptuous queen, and, subsequently attracting and attracted by Lord Nelson, made herself again conspicuous in that most blameable connection. Lady Hamilton now played her part in politics as well as in intrigue, and not only produced a separation between the hero of the Nile and his lady, but by her advice sullied the fame of that celebrated warrior on several occasions. The author of these memoirs combats several statements in a Life of Nelson which is said to have been drawn up under Emma's direction, and is not less sparing in his animadversions on the fascinated hero than on his fascinating Armida. Strong censure is passed on the Admiral's interference in some measures of the Neapolitan court on his return from Aboukir; particularly his abrogation of the treaty concluded by Cardinal Ruffo with the Neapolitan revolutionists, and his cruel conduct towards old Prince Caraccioli, which is attributed to the unfortunate influence of Lady Hamilton. Thus plainly does the writer deliver his opinion on this nefarious transaction :

' Whatever might have been the crimes of Caraccioli, he ought not to have been received on board an English ship as a prisoner; and the very act of doing it was an indelible stain upon our national character, which all the professional merit of the person who allowed it could not efface. But what followed this detestable business can never be palliated by casuistry, nor defaced by splendour. It must for ever stand as one of those spots, which, in the midst of all that is gaudy and dazzling, will obtrude themselves on the memory, to humble the pride of man, and teach him that the greatest of mortals are not those who astonish the world by their heroism, but those who enlighten it by their virtues.

' Within an hour from the time that this poor old man was brought on board the Foudroyant, a court-martial of Sicilian officers, the president of which was his determined enemy, assembled in that ship by the orders of Lord Nelson, to try the subject of another state for treason. That Caraccioli was found guilty by this junto, who had no authority for what they did, was a matter of course. The court was as complete a mockery of justice as it was an outrage on humanity. The wretched prisoner was tried, but without having the means of defence; for he had no time to prepare himself, either by
legal

legal advice or the production of witnesses. The King of Naples, who could alone grant a commission for his trial, was at Palermo; but Sir William and Lady Hamilton were on board the *Foudroyant*: a circumstance that will sufficiently account for the indecent hurry with which the proceedings were hastened, and for the catastrophe which ensued. It was in vain that Caraccioli alleged, in his excuse, that he had been compelled to enter into the republican service, though, if he had proved it by the fullest evidence, it would neither have operated in his favour on the trial, nor stayed the execution, which had been obviously predetermined with as much certainty and justice as the decree of an eastern divan. Caraccioli was found guilty, and received sentence of death; the report of which being communicated to the British admiral, he signed the warrant for its being carried into effect the same evening, by hanging the prisoner at the yard-arm, on board a Sicilian frigate. The unhappy prisoner acted with firmness, though the disgraceful manner of his death gave him great uneasiness; and he solicited to be shot, saying to Lieutenant Parkinson, who had the charge of him — “I am an old man, Sir. I leave no family to lament me, and therefore cannot be supposed to be very anxious about prolonging my life: but the disgrace of being hanged is dreadful to me.” The lieutenant, who felt as a man and an officer on this occasion, went to Nelson with the request of the prisoner; but the only answer he could obtain was to go and mind his duty. Caraccioli then asked the lieutenant if he thought that an application to Lady Hamilton might not be likely to have some effect in changing the sentence. The lieutenant, anxious to oblige an unfortunate gentleman, for whom he entertained a personal respect, went to seek her Ladyship, who could not be found. This woman, however, was in the cabin all the time; and she knew, as well as Nelson, the intent of the application: though she neither had the civility to hear what the kind-hearted Parkinson had to say, nor humanity enough to interpose in favour of one to whom she and Sir William owed many obligations. But though the ambassador and his wife could not find it in their hearts to speak one favourable word in the behalf of an old acquaintance, they had sufficient strength of mind to view the last horrible scene of the tragedy, which was executed at five o’clock the same evening, at the fore-yard-arm of a Sicilian frigate, commanded by one of Caraccioli’s bitterest enemies. As if, however, revenge could not be carried far enough, the common rites of sepulture were forbidden to the body, which was thrown overboard in the bay of Naples, when it might easily have been taken on shore, and interred with decency.’

This biographer doubts the authenticity of the story propagated by Lady H., that she went on her knees to intreat her noble admirer to accept the ducal title and estate of Bronte from King Ferdinand; and his reasons for questioning the report are thus given:

‘Had Nelson been less vain and solicitous of titles than he was the reverse, such a tale might have passed without any observation on its impro-

improbability; but it certainly becomes doubtful, when it is known that he ever attached an extraordinary value to this distinction, which, when coupled with the character of the personage who conferred it, and the class of nobility with which it associated our countryman, was far enough from being an object of congratulation. It would indeed have been creditable to Nelson had he declined this honour; and, resting satisfied with the unpolluted favours of his own sovereign, preserved the independence of his character. By enrolling his name among the nobles of Sicily, and accepting an estate in that island for having replaced Ferdinand on the throne, this great man tacitly sanctioned the acts of that monarch, and his vindictive cruelty towards his unhappy subjects. Painful as it must be to make these reflections, they are powerfully suggested by the transaction which we have been obliged to record; and the glory of Nelson would unquestionably have shone with greater lustre, if he had resisted with firmness the prostituted titles of an infamous court, especially at a time when the hand that held out the gift was stained with blood.'

Pains are taken to prove that the mysterious child, named Horatia Nelson Thomson, was the offspring of Lady Hamilton and Lord Nelson, and the evidence produced is very strong. After the death of Sir William, Lady H. resided entirely with our naval hero, till his fall in the glorious action off Trafalgar; and she then pursued a course of thoughtless extravagance which dissipated her fortune, and forced her to fly her country. She died at Calais, January 16. 1815, and was buried at the expence of an English merchant. — Such was the career of this very extraordinary woman; and important is the lesson which it conveys. Who would enjoy her brightest days at the cost which she paid for them? What female would wish for her transient elevation, embittered as it must have been in its most brilliant moments by a mind without self-approbation, and terminated in a grave in a foreign land, for which she was indebted to the generosity of a stranger from her own? Alas! we cannot add,

“By strangers honour'd, and by strangers mourn'd.”

ART. IX. *The History of the Life and Reign of Alexander the Great.*
By Quintus Curtius Rufus. Translated from the Latin. With
Supplements, Notes, and a Map. 8vo. 2 Vols. Bagster.

“ALPHONSUS, King of Naples, was confined by indisposition at Capua; and while every one was devising amusements and attentions to relieve the royal patient, — summoned from Gaieta, I flew to his presence, carrying with me my juleps and catholicons; that is to say, such books as I knew would give him most pleasure to hear read, hoping to apply them

them under favourable indications, as the doctors say ; among these I administered Quintus Curtius." (PANORMITA, in *facetiis Alphonsi Regis*.)

The anonymous translator before us concludes his panegyrical preface on his author with the passage above cited ; and we are disposed to allow the mental physician to have possessed considerable *tact*, and to consider Quintus Curtius as very likely to relieve the *ennui* of a scholar : but whether Curtius be an " uncorrupt and legitimate" historian, according to the opinion of Lipsius, or whether this opinion be untenable, we shall not now inquire ; leaving the reader to draw his own conclusions from the materials here collected to assist his judgment. With the translator's own legitimacy or corruption, however, we have at this period more concern ; and we shall adduce specimens both of his original composition in the aforesaid eulogistical prolegomena, and of his version of sundry passages in his favourite historian.

Speaking of the troubled night at Rome which passed between the assassination of Caligula and the elevation of Claudius, the author observes : ' Had the nobles who asserted rival pretensions to the throne, and the desperate factions who impatiently aimed to abolish the imperial government, come to the promiscuous conflict which was impending, *embrued Rome had been sternly desolated*.' Really this is a strange style ; and the author seems conscious of it, since he says,

' I have to ask pardon for *two* or *three* inversions, not meant to possess the smooth tinkling of a dying paragraph, but to disturb the gentle reader in the midst of a flow of monotony, and relieve him by seasonable ruggedness. Against inexorable critics, I can plead ancient licence for an opposite sacrifice to variety of cadence, the deliberate retention of morsels of verse accidentally escaping in composition ; three feet of sapphic, and less than an epic line, cannot deserve a severe fulmination. I must bespeak absolution, too, for using the word " transcend" in a sense correlative with " ascend" and " descend." The consciousness that I have detected and avoided some slight alloy of error, in a variety of works connected with the illustration of Curtius, prevents me from hoping that care has preserved me from mistakes. The notes show my great obligations to previous commentators, and to some recent English writers.'

We acknowledge that we were not highly prepossessed in favour of the coming translation by these preliminary passages : — but, as we knew that much remained to be done for Curtius, and as we observed numerous indications of industry and research in this introductory portion of the work, which is furnished also with a copious map and an ingenious commentary on it, we discarded our minor and more critical objections,

jections, and, passing over the two supplementary books, began with Curtius himself, — cheerfully, if not in any ardent expectation.

We present our readers with the result of this first examination; transcribing the Latin as well as the English, for the sake of better enabling them to draw their inferences as to the general merits of the translation, of which certainly this is a fair specimen.

“ Quinti Curtii, Liber Tertius.

“ Inter hæc, Alexander ad conducendum ex Peloponneso militem Cleandro cum pecuniâ misso, Lyciæ Pamphyliaque rebus compositis, ad urbem Celenas exercitum admovit. Media, illâ tempestate, mania interfluebat Marsyas amnis, fabulosis Græcorum carminibus inclytus. Fons ejus ex summo montis cacumine excurrrens, in subjectam petram magno strepitu aquarum cadit: inde diffusus, circumjectos rigat campos, liquidus, et suas duntaxat undas trahens. Itaque color ejus placido mari similis, locum poetarum mendacio fecit: quippe traditum est, nymphas amore amnis retentas, illâ rupe considerare.”

This extract will be sufficient from the Latin; and, referring the critical scholar to the continuation of the passage in the original, we shall consequently prolong our transcript from the English to a greater extent.

‘ Quintus Curtius, Book the Third.

*‘ * 1. Alexander, in the meantime, had dispatched Cleander, with a sum of money, to enlist a subsidiary force in the Peloponnesus. Having created administrations for Lycia and Pamphylia, he conducted his army to Celæna, a walled city which was intersected by the stream of the Marsyas. This river is celebrated by the fictitious origin ascribed to it by the Greek poets. Its spring, poured from the extreme summit of a mountain, falls, a roaring cataract, into the rocky channel below; afterwards, diffusing, the flood irrigates the green levels; perfectly clear, its waters, dimpled with gentle undulations, are all derived from one source. Hence its complexion resembles that of the sea, when calm; and hence the fable of the poets, that nymphs loiter in the recesses of the rock, enamoured with the beauty of the river. While it flows between the ramparts, it retains the name of the Marsyas; but on leaving the town, swelled into a more copious and rapid stream, it is called the Lycus. †*

*‘ * The Arabic numerals, before paragraphs in the text, answer to Curtius’s own division of the chapters, and are preserved for the sake of reference.’*

‘ † Here the commentators recognize an error. Curtius confounds the Lycus, a river very near, with the Marsyas: the former, rising in mount Cadmus, does not wash Celæna, but Laodicea, and falls into the Meander, a little below the Marsyas. Maximus Tyrius, however, an eye-witness, makes the Meander and the Marsyas to be the same; in which case, the error, if any, is trivial.’

‘ Alexander

‘ Alexander entered Celæna, which had been deserted by the inhabitants, and prepared to attack the citadel into which they had fled. He apprised them by a herald, that unless they immediately surrendered, they must expect the utmost severities: they led the herald up into a tower, which nature and skilful engineers had combined to render strong, bidding him survey its height, and inform Alexander, ‘ That the inhabitants differed from him in their estimate of the fortress; that they knew it to be impregnable; and that, in maintaining their allegiance, they would not shrink from death.’ But, when enclosed by the besieging forces, perceiving that scarcity gained upon them every day, they negociated a truce for two months, engaging, if not relieved during that time by Darius, to deliver up the place. No succour arriving, they surrendered on the appointed day.

‘ 2. Here, ambassadors from Attica requested the enlargement of such Athenians as had been taken at the battle of the Granicus. The king replied, “ Not those only, but all the other Greek captives I restore to their homes, when the Persian war shall be ended.”

‘ Alexander knew that Darius had not yet passed the Euphrates; yet, impatient to meet him, he summoned his levies and recalled his detachments, in order that, with collected forces, he might come to a decisive action. His army he was now conducting through Magna Phrygia, which abounded with villages, but had few cities. Yet Gordium, the ancient seat of Midas, still continued to be a place of importance; with the river Sangarius flowing through it, it is seated at an equal distance from the Euxine and the Cilician * sea. Between the two coasts †, we find the narrowest part of Asia Minor; both coasts, by deep indentations, giving this strip of the continent the character of an isthmus ‡. Thus, the noble peninsula of Asia Minor is nearly embraced by the dominions of Neptune. §

‘ Alexander, having added the citizens of Gordium to the number of his subjects, entered the temple of Jupiter, where they showed

‘ * According to the best modern maps, this is not a good clue to the site of Gordium; it is represented to be about seventy-five miles from the Euxine, and two hundred and forty from the Cilician coast. On the other hand, these maps place it at some distance from the Sangarius; by which, according to Strabo, as well as Curtius, it was intersected.’

‘ † Not in a line with Gordium, but between Pontus and Cilicia.’

‘ ‡ *Arctus fauces*, applied to the space between the shores, has been censured: it seems a sufficient apology for Curtius, to consider, that a tract of much greater breadth may be an isthmus, provided it connect with the main-land a peninsula of correspondent magnitude.’

‘ § The translator has accommodated the passage to the present state of geography; for the *nisi tenue discrimen objiceret, maria, quæ nunc dividit, committeret*, of the original — “ were it not for a slender neck of land, the two seas, which are now divided, would meet” — is in this respect inaccurate, that it conveys the idea of positive tenuity, not of relative narrowness, contrasted with the body of the continent.’

him the car of Gordius, father to Midas. There was nothing in the workmanship of this rude car, or waggon, to distinguish it. But the yoke [or harness] was rendered a remarkable object by the labyrinth of cord which held it; so intertwined was this with itself, that, in the multiplied knots, the real knot, where the extremities met, could not be discovered. Alexander, informed by the inhabitants that the oracle had conferred the empire of Asia on the man who should untie the harness, felt a vehement desire to fulfil the condition of the prophecy.

‘ 3. Round the king was a concourse of Phrygians and Macedonians: those urged by impatient expectation, these concerned at the temerity of their prince; for the series of knots was so perplexed, that it was impossible to perceive, or to infer, where it began or ended. Alexander, after a long struggle with the intricate crossings of the cord, apprehending that his failure would be regarded as an inauspicious omen, exclaimed: “It is immaterial how the knots are loosened:” and cut them asunder with his sword, either eluding or fulfilling the terms of the oracle.* ’

It is obvious that the mode of version here adopted is very diffuse:—a winter-copy of the summer-Marsyas:—but *on the whole* not inelegant, though occasionally quaint. We could, indeed, demur, were we so disposed, to several passages; and to one or two we must state our objections. Still the general effect is far from bad; and we do not know whether the author be not in a degree justified in his opinion of the want of a new translation of Curtius.

The character of the original is violated by a deviation from the grammatical construction of the sentence which the following was intended to represent. ‘The King replied,’ (to the Athenian ambassadors, see above,) ‘Not those only, but all the other Greek captives I restore to their homes, when the Persian war shall be ended.’ Curtius had said, “*Ille non hos modo, sed etiam ceteros Græcos, restitui suis jussurum respondit, finito Persico bello.*” The simplicity of this passage is in the best taste that Curtius ever manifests, according to our judgment, and such things should not occur in vain. That Gordium ‘still continued to be a place of importance’ may be very true from other indications, but is not stated in this place by Curtius. He calls it “*quondam nobilem Mide regiam.*”—The ‘*accommodation*’ of a subsequent passage ‘to the present state of geography’ we cannot approve. It is as if an expositor of the Ptolemaic system of the world were to introduce into his text a *dash* of the Copernican, and account for the *accommodation* in his notes. Curtius says what the translator has

* The followers of Alexander retired with a conviction, that he had accomplished this task for a king. Arrian says, that a seasonable thunder-storm confirmed their credulity.’

quoted, “*nisi tenue discrimen*,” &c. (see before); and the latter adds, ‘Thus the noble peninsula of Asia Minor is nearly embraced by the dominions of Neptune.’ To say nothing of the *strut* of this passage, we would ask the most experienced observer of “*The Vagaries of Translation*,” (a title for an amusing work which we cannot help suggesting, *en passant*,) whether he ever saw any thing quite equal to this *accommodation*? The concluding passage of our citation, too, is far from happy: the words “*Oraculi sortem vel elusit, vel implevit*,” are, indeed, unluckily rendered by ‘eluding or fulfilling the *terms* of the oracle.’

We scarcely know whether it be worth while to extend our record of the various points which occurred to us in perusing this translation. Perhaps it will be more satisfactory to our readers, and at all events it will be a more concise mode of assisting their judgment, if we examine a few or even one of the passages cited by the author from the translation of Curtius immediately previous to his own, and endeavour to ascertain how far they really fall short of the subsequent version. A quarto translation of Curtius exists, bearing the dates of 1553, 1561, 1584, 1592, 1614, with an intermediate octavo edition of the same, 1570. This looks well: but the Curtius of Robert Brende, (we take the present writer’s account,) as far as our observation extends, is not the commonest nor the most approved of versions from the classics. The quarto and the duodecimo of Robert Codrington (in 1652, the former, and in 1670, 1675, the latter,) partake of equal obscurity. The joint version of several persons, who were headed by Nahum Tate, (the indefatigable Nahum!) and by his most ‘comparative’ of Epistles, addressed to the *then* Alexander, King William, died in Octavo, and was buried at London Anno Domini 1690. The translation by John Digby, 2 vols. duodecimo, 1714, 1726, was revised in 1747 by the Reverend William Young; and from ‘Young’s Digby’s Quintus Curtius Rufus,’ the present author adduces several instances of faulty translation, ‘with references to the parallel passages in the following volumes,’ whose “*benefit is fixed*,” &c. &c. &c. We are here strongly reminded of the *ruse de guerre* of a classical editor; who, in preferring a small and cheap edition of an antient author to a more voluminous one, of which he was giving a critical account, accomplished the immediate purpose of criticism, and the prospective purpose of the market, in one and the same sentence!

“*Omne tulit punctum qui miscuit utile dulci.*”

The first objectionable passage from ‘Young’s Digby’ is this; and we really think that it *may* be sufficient:—“The back

of the mountain, where the sea presses in farthest, has three very narrow passes, by one of which you enter Cilicia." — The parallel in the work before us is: 'Through this ridge there are three passes, craggy and extremely confined: in that part which, by an inland curvature, retires the farthest from the sea, on the north as it respects the province inclosed, is the pass to Cilicia.' — 'The text,' says the translator, in one of his 'accommodating' notes, 'does not *exactly* correspond with the original.' "*Per hoc dorsum, quod maximè introrsum mari cedit, asperi tres aditus et perangusti sunt, quorum uno Cilicia intranda est.*" This would *seem* to be vastly more like 'Young's Digby:—' but,' continues the present ingenious translator and annotator, 'the passage *evidently* labours under some omission; and the translator *has supplied a few words*, to reconcile it with Strabo, and with modern maps *;—for each of the two remaining passes, which are not particularly pointed out by Curtius, (the *Streits* of Amanica, leading on the east to Issus; and the *Streits* of Syria, leading on the south to that province,) so contrary to being remote from the shore, is contiguous, and gives name to a harbour.' See Strabo, lib. 14.

This quotation will also content us on the minor object which we proposed above. *On the whole*, (as we have already said,) it must be admitted that much research and a good portion of just scholarship are displayed in these volumes. No lover of Curtius *can* be without them:—but we certainly cannot give either uniform praise to the *style* of the translator, or sanction to the *freedom* of the commentator. We observe, too, that he has not corrected the anachronism in the 1st Supplementary Book, (at the end of chap. iv.) which makes Phidias contend with Praxiteles in executing a statue of Alexander.

ART. X. *Old English Plays*. No. I. Vol. V. 8vo. Martin.

SINCE we wrote our remarks on the third and fourth volumes of this collection, (see our last Review,) the first number of the fifth has made its appearance; and, as we shall have no opportunity of recurring to the subject before the conclusion of the work, we cannot satisfy ourselves in letting the present pass, without once more calling on the editor to do justice to his readers in the future parts of his publication. In the article just quoted, we gladly commended him for the increase of vigilance and attention which he appeared to us to

* Notwithstanding the controuling authority of Mr. Arrowsmith, is it possible to rely on so bold a geographer's own map with *perfect* security?

have given to his labours after our former animadversions : — but we are now reluctantly compelled to retract our praises ; because, of all the Plays which he has hitherto published, not one has come out so crowded with faults, so completely unpurified from the gross errors of the prompter's editions, and betraying so total an absence of all care and attention on the part of the editor, as the present, — Middleton's tragedy of " Women, beware Women." In the first place, it is not introduced by a preface or introduction of any sort ; although the story on which it is founded (that of the famous *Bianca Capello*, first mistress and afterward wife of Francis de Medici, Grand Duke of Florence,) would have naturally elicited, and certainly more than justified, something of an extended critical dissertation. In many essential points, the dramatic fable differs both from the real history of this remarkable woman, and from all the popular accounts of her which long usurped the place of genuine history. We should suppose that the design had been suggested to the poet rather by some Italian novel founded on an historical basis, than by any more grave authority ; and the conclusion, which is marvellously confused and intricate, besides being as bloody as *Titus Andronicus*, bears (we think) incontestible marks of the parentage which we impute to it. This was a point well worth inquiry ; and if, after having hunted through all the tomes of the *Novellieso Italiano*, subsequent in date to the historical transaction, and prior to Middleton's play, the editor had failed in making the discovery, he would at least have done his duty, and we should have thanked him for the search : — but, so far from this, he has not even given us the slightest hint from which it can be inferred that he had ever heard of the historical event or the personages concerned in it, or had the remotest idea of its connection with the drama which he pretends to edit. Indeed, a proof-positive of his ignorance on the subject, at the same time that it shews either his utter carelessness or his incapacity to understand the laws of rhythm, is his retention of the barbarous corruption made by the old printer or transcriber of the name itself, *Bianca*, to the no-name *Brancha* ; — and this not only in the list of *dramatis personæ*, but throughout the play, in innumerable passages in which the false reading is glaringly inconsistent with the metre, and requires an additional syllable.

• Sure you're not well, Brancha (*Bianca*)! How dost, pr'ythee?' P. 60.

• How Sir! Brancha (*Bianca*)? What d'ye call the other?' P. 64.

• What shall I think of first? Come forth, Brancha (*Bianca*)?' *Ib.*

• Thou hast been seen, Brancha (*Bianca*), by some stranger.' P. 65.

- ‘ I should fall forward rather. Come Brancha (*Bianca*).’ P. 69.
- ‘ There’s to thyself, Brancha (*Bianca*). Nothing comes.’ P. 72.
- ‘ Of bright Brancha (*Bianca*); we all sat in darkness.’ P. 73.
- ‘ How lik’st, Brancha (*Bianca*)? All things well, my Lord.’ P. 77.
- ‘ There is no doubt, Brancha (*Bianca*), she’ll find leisure.’ *Ib.*
- ‘ For aught I see in him. How think’st, Brancha (*Bianca*)?’ P. 78.

Such a succession of unmetrical lines, all occasioned by one and the same blunder, and occurring in every other page for twenty pages together, is a circumstance, we imagine, altogether unparalleled, even in the annals of dramatic editorship.

- ‘ You speak now, brother, like an honest mortal
That walks upon the earth with a staff;
You were up i’th’ clouds before: you’d command love,
And so do most old folks that go without it.’ P. 16.

So, no doubt, reads the old quarto of 1657, (which we have not at hand to consult,) — and so, *therefore*, reads the present editor; — not because he is so totally deaf to rhythm as he would have us suppose, since, in other places, he has shewn that no such natural deficiency exists in him, but because the task of correction is too troublesome. The lines would otherwise have been printed thus:

That walks upon th’ earth with a staff: you were
Up in the clouds before: you’d command love, &c.

In the next page, we have a most portentous line, occasioned by the introduction of an useless exclamation, in comparison with which all the “ ‘Ods’ foots” of which we formerly complained sink to nothing:

- ‘ As if a fearful prisoner should bribe
The keeper to be good to him, yet lies in still,
And glad of a good usage, a good look
Sometimes; *by ’r lady*, no misery surmounts a woman’s.’ P. 17.

The second line of this passage, though harsh and requiring the elision of the vowel before “him,” is not inadmissible: — but to have retained the absurd ejaculation in the last exceeds all bounds of patience.

In the next page, we have an unmetrical double epithet:

- ‘ This is an obstinate [wilful] forgetfulness.’ P. 18.

In page 27. another player’s expletive:

- ‘ The carefull’st of their healths, and of their ease *forsooth*.’

In page 84. another:

- ‘ *Why sure*, this can be but the flattery of some dream!’

‘ Restraint

‘ Restraint breeds wand’ring thoughts, as *many* fasting days
A great desire to see flesh stirring again.’ P. 92.

‘ But, come I to your everlasting party *once*,
Thunder shall seem soft music to that tempest.’ P. 95.

‘ To see the monuments, which they may smell as soon
As they behold ; *marry*, oft’times their heads,’ &c. *Ib.*

Instead of which, the verse should be thus divided :

To see the monuments, which they may smell
As soon as they behold : oft-times their heads, &c.

‘ And when she wakes to honour, then she’ll thank me *for’t*.’ P. 99.

‘ What’s this, Fabritio ?

—— *Marry*, my Lord, the model,’ &c. P. 118.

“ *Marry*, by ’r lady,” we are somewhat tired of this hunt, and should not have followed up the game so far, if the play itself, which is thus cruelly mangled, were less deserving of a more careful editor : but, with all its gross defects, it is the best which has hitherto appeared in the present collection, and would lose little by comparison with any production of Massinger or Ford. Its principal fault, which we have already noticed, is the hurried and absurdly horrible conclusion : but the characters, particularly those of Livia and Bianca, are strongly conceived, and ably discriminated, while the situations are often highly dramatic. If we add that the language, in many parts, is extremely poetical, and that the whole composition bears marks of imagination and fancy not surpassed in any of the works of our minor dramatists, we may be said to contradict an opinion which we have before expressed ; and, indeed, we must in candour acknowledge that this play, which we had never before perused, gives us a much higher impression of the powers of Middleton as a writer than we had previously entertained, and induces us warmly to desire a *judicious* edition of his entire works. Having so far confessed ourselves in an error, we cannot better atone for it than by selecting a few of those passages which are in themselves eminently beautiful ; though we are aware that even these must lose much of their effect by being detached from the scenes in which they are introduced.

Leantio, as yet ignorant of his fair bride’s unfaithfulness, thus anticipates the joys of re-union after a temporary absence :

‘ How near am I now to a happiness
That earth exceeds not ! not another like it :
The treasures of the deep are not so precious,
As are the conceal’d comforts of a man
Lock’d up in woman’s love. I scent the air
Of blessings when I come but near the house :

What a delicious breath marriage sends forth !
 The violet-bed's not sweeter. Honest wedlock
 Is like a banqueting-house built in a garden,
 On which the Spring's chaste flowers take delight
 To cast their modest odours ; when base lust,
 With all her powders, paintings, and best pride,
 Is but a fair house built by a ditch side.
 When I behold a glorious dangerous strumpet,
 Sparkling in beauty and destruction too,
 Both at a twinkling, I do liken straight
 Her beautify'd body to a goodly temple
 That's built on vaults where carcasses lie rotting,
 And so, by little and little, I shrink back again,
 And quench desire with a cool meditation ;
 And I'm as well methinks. Now for a welcome
 Able to draw men's envies upon man :
 A kiss now that will hang upon my lip,
 As sweet as morning-dew upon a rose,
 And full as long.' —

The coldness with which he is received by her whom, in the fullness of his joy, he was expecting to meet, draws from him the following comparison :

‘ Is that all ?

Why, this is dreadful now as sudden death
 To some rich man, that flatters all his sins
 With promise of repentance when he's old,
 And dies in the mid-way before he comes to't.’

When he is at last convinced of the loss of her affections, he exclaims, in a style of bitterness finely contrasted with his former spirit ;

‘ Oh, thou the ripe time of man's misery, wedlock !
 When all his thoughts, like over-laden trees,
 Crack with the fruits they bear, in cares, in jealousies,
 Oh ! that's a fruit that ripens hastily,
 After 'tis knit to marriage : it begins,
 As soon as the sun shines upon the bride
 A little to shew colour. Blessed powers !
 Whence comes this alteration ? the distractions,
 The fears and doubts it brings are numberless,
 And yet the cause I know not. What a peace
 Has he that never marries ! if he knew
 The benefit he enjoy'd, or had the fortune
 To come and speak with me, he should know then
 The infinite wealth he had, and discern rightly
 The greatness of his treasure by my loss :
 Nay, what a quietness has he 'bove mine,
 That wears his youth out in a strumpet's arms,
 And never spends more care upon a woman,
 Than at the time of lust ; but walks away,

And

And if he find her dead at his return,
 His pity is soon done, he breaks a sigh
 In many parts, and gives her but a piece on't!
 But all the fears, shames, jealousies, costs and troubles,
 And still renew'd cares of a marriage-bed,
 Live in the issue, when the wife is dead !'

The following speech of the Cardinal to the adulterous Duke, his brother, is in a much higher strain of admonitory poetry, and, in part, forms a sort of paraphrase of the eighth satire of Juvenal; than which it would be difficult to point out any thing more morally sublime in the whole circle of our national drama.

' Dare you look up
 For thinking of a vengeance? dare you sleep
 For fear of never waking, but to death?
 And dedicate unto a strumpet's love
 The strength of your affections, zeal, and health?
 Here you stand now; can you assure your pleasures,
 You shall once more enjoy her? but once more?
 Alas! you cannot: what a misery 'tis then
 To be more certain of eternal death,
 Than of a next embrace! nay, shall I show you
 How more unfortunate you stand in sin,
 Than the low private man: all *his* offences,
 Like enclos'd grounds, keep but about himself,
 And seldom stretch beyond his own soul's bounds;
 And when a man grows miserable, 'tis some comfort
 When he's no further charg'd than with himself:
 'Tis a sweet ease to wretchedness: but, great man,
 Ev'ry sin thou commit'st shows like a flame
 Upon a mountain; 'tis seen far about;
 And with a big wind made of popular breath,
 The sparkles fly through cities: here one takes,
 Another catches there, and in short time
 Waste all to cinders: but remember still
 What burnt the vallies first, came from the hill;
 Ev'ry offence draws his particular pain,
 But 'tis example proves the great man's bane.
 The sins of mean men lie like scatter'd parcels
 Of an imperfect bill; but when such fall,
 Then comes example, and that sums up all:
 And this your reason grants; if men of good lives,
 Who by their virtuous actions stir up others
 To noble and religious imitation,
 Receive the greater glory after death,
 (As sin must needs confess) what may they feel
 In height of torments, and in weight of vengeance,
 Not only they themselves not doing well
 But set a light up to show men to hell?
 * * * * *

' There's

‘ There’s but this wall (*pointing to his body*) between you and destruction,
 When you’re at strongest ; and but poor thin clay,
 Think upon’t, brother ; can you come so near it
 For a fair strumpet’s love ? and fall into
 A torment that knows neither end nor bottom
 For beauty, — but the deepness of a skin,
 And that not their own either ? Is she a thing
 Whom sickness dare not visit, or age look on,
 Or death resist ? Does the worm shun her grave ?
 If not (as your soul knows it) why should lust
 Bring man to lasting pain for rotten dust ?’

Many other passages in this play exhibit very great merit : — but we have already indulged in an unusual length of quotation, and must desist. Notwithstanding our high respect for Middleton, we are sorry that another comedy is announced for the next number ; the tragedies of our old writers being, in general, so very far superior in poetical beauty.

ART. XI. *Engravings from Specimens of Morbid Parts*, preserved in the Author’s Collection, now in Windmill Street, and selected from the Divisions inscribed Urethra, Vesica, Ren, Morbosa, et Læsa ; containing Specimens of every Disease which is attended with Change of Structure in these Parts, and exhibiting the Injuries from the Bougie, Catheter, Caustic, Trochar, and Lithotomy-Knife, incautiously used ; with Observations. By Charles Bell, F.R.S. Ed. &c. &c. Folio. 1l. 16s. sewed. Longman and Co.

MR. Charles Bell is well known to the public as a diligent cultivator of the art of surgery, and more especially of that branch of it which immediately depends on the intimate connection between surgery and anatomy. The object of the present work is to illustrate, by engravings, the nature and treatment of the diseases of the urinary organs ; the knowledge of which is especially derived from an acquaintance with the anatomical structure of the parts, and with the appearances which they assume from the effects of disease. It is observed in the preface :

‘ Several circumstances which occurred in my practice led me to doubt the correctness of many prevailing opinions ; and respect for the authors of those opinions made me desirous of investigating the subject thoroughly by dissections of the dead body. By pursuing this object for some years past, I have collected a greedy body of evidence regarding diseases of the urethra and bladder ; every dissection gave me useful hints for my own practice, and brought important facts under my observation. By communicating these for the benefit of others, I gratify the wish with which I originally entered on these inquiries. The engravings, I hope, will be found to explain clearly the

the facts I have observed, and the preparations from which they are taken are open to the public.'

Mr. B. very candidly informs us that some of his conclusions are at variance with what are regarded as the highest authorities in the profession: but, at the same time, he confidently rests them on the facts which are illustrated in these engravings.

We have now before us only the first number of the projected work, and it is chiefly confined to the urethra. The author announces its contents to be, '1. Introduction, containing the Anatomy of the Urethra, and the Principles of Pathology as regards it. 2. Plans explanatory of the Introduction of the Catheter. 3. Engravings and Descriptions of the different Kinds of Strictures. 4. Casts of diseased Urethræ. 5. False Passages made by the Use of the Bougie. 6. Consequences of Caustic applied to the Urethra. 7. Fistulæ in Urethra.' These important topics are admirably illustrated by 12 excellent plates, each of which is accompanied by a page or two of remarks and description. Prefixed is the introduction, which consists of some accurate and learned observations on the Anatomy of the Urethra. Much confusion appears to have prevailed respecting the ligaments and fasciæ which connect the curve of the urethra with the neck of the bladder; and even the muscles of them have not been discriminated with all the accuracy that might have been expected. Mr. C. Bell seems to have dissected and examined these parts with peculiar minuteness, to have carefully compared his results with those of his predecessors, and to have established a more correct nomenclature. Among the pathological remarks, we may select those on the loss of elasticity in the membrane of the urethra.

'The effect of a certain degree of inflammation on the membrane of the urethra is an increased discharge and the loss of its natural elasticity. The membrane of the urethra, having a ready disposition to discharge profusely when suffering inflammation, is not so liable to form bands, and to be thickened, and strengthened, as the serous membranes and common cellular membranes. The common cellular texture, on being pressed and a little inflamed, will quickly be condensed into a ligamentous firmness; this we see in aneurisms and hernia, around swellings of the glands and abscesses; so will the peritoneum, or pleura, or pia mater, or any other membrane, being inflamed, form bands and new processes. But, although the membrane of the urethra be not so liable on slighter attacks of inflammation to lose its elasticity and become callous, and have strictures formed on it, yet every violent or long continued inflammation produces this consequence; and the varieties in the place, form, and extent of the obstructions thus occasioned, it will be a principal object of the following pages to explain.'

The

The first two plates are principally devoted to the membranes which connect the urethra with the bladder, and which occasionally form an obstruction to the introduction of the catheter. The way in which this effect is produced, and the manner in which it is best obviated, are well exhibited in the plans which compose the second plate. In the third plate, we have a view of a diseased prostate; and the obstacle which it affords to the discharge of the urine and the introduction of the catheter, with the great advantage of employing an instrument of elastic gum, are properly explained.

The remaining plates are chiefly occupied with exhibiting several varieties of stricture; and the author renders their effect in obstructing the canal of the urethra more striking, by taking casts in wax, which are engraved with the parts themselves. On this point we have the following remark:

‘ This plate must be interesting to those who wish to comprehend the nature, and distinction, and effects of stricture in the urethra. The parts being put into warm water, the common wax-injection was thrown into the orifice of the urethra. I have seen a surgeon so full of the idea of spasmodic strictures, that he has discovered them in the dead body; and I have a preparation which was labelled when I got it, a “*spasmodic stricture*.” But I believe none of my readers, who observe the effect of these strictures on the wax cast into the urethra nine or ten days after death, will dream of spasm: yet this is remarkable (both in this and in many of my preparations) that, when the urethra is opened, and the parts naked in water, often little remains indicating the presence of the stricture. Had I not been very careful in breaking off the wax, and disentangling it from the stricture, no proof would have been left of the sharpness and unyielding nature of the stricture, but in the impressions on the wax.’

These wax-casts very excellently display the different form of strictures; some consisting of a contraction of the inner membrane of the urethra, stretching across the passage like a thin band; others composed of a long and irregular constriction, diminishing the diameter of the passage for a considerable length; and a third species, apparently the consequence of ulceration, in which the structure of the part appears to be destroyed and disorganized. These various forms of stricture lead to the consideration of the choice of the bougie or caustic as the best remedy for them; and we think that every person who attentively surveys Mr. C. Bell's plates must conclude that no one plan is the most eligible for every case. The mere membranous stricture may be the most readily destroyed by the caustic: but this application would be very injurious, and inefficacious, when employed in the extensive contractions of the canal.

One of the plates exhibits a striking example of the mischief that is sometimes committed by forcing catheters and bougies into a *false passage*. It is pointed out as a remarkable circumstance that the introduction of the bougie into this false passage occasionally gives relief to the sufferings of the patient, and thus induces him to persevere in his error :

‘ I cannot let this last circumstance escape the reader’s notice, that an injury to the urethra should give relief ; that pushing the bougie into a false passage should take away that morbid sensibility in the part which is so distressing. Here we have a principle announced to us of the first consequence in practice. We must disturb that low degree of inflammation which is attended with so much irritation and spasmodic action of the surrounding muscles, and yet if we go too far we shall bring on more distressing symptoms. To manage the degree of violence, and to judge of the time for repeating the operation on the stricture, is the great difficulty in practice.’

The eighth plate affords a valuable illustration of the mischief sometimes occasioned by the improper use of caustic : but we need not add to the number of our extracts, in order to convince our readers of the merit of this publication : it possesses every requisite for our approbation ; and we shall wait with impatience for the appearance of the second fasciculus.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, FOR JULY, 1815.

NOVELS.

Art. 12. *Maria ; or the Hollanders.* By Louis Buonaparte. 12mo.
3 Vols. Colburn. 1815.

One brother having occupied his retirement in the composition of an epic poem, it is not improbable that the amusement of another was the construction of a novel ; and we shall not be surprized if the most celebrated of the family, after having been removed from the agitations of war and empire, passes his hours of leisure in penning his own most interesting and eventful history. Though, therefore, doubt may sometimes attach itself to the authenticity of publications of this kind, we must own that we see no reason for questioning the truth of the title which assigns this book to Louis Bonaparte as its author, and the statement to this effect which is given in the preface. Coming from such a source, it seems to require peculiar notice ; and the elevated situation which the author for a short time sustained in Holland, previously to his retirement into Bohemia and Poland, will no doubt strongly recommend it to the Dutch, if not to the rest of the inhabitants of Europe. It is said that the first edition of this work was printed at Gratz in 1812, (that is, two years after the author had descended from the throne of Holland,) under the title of *Marie,*

Marie, ou les Peines de l'Amour, and that in 1814, a reprint appeared at Paris.

‘ In the interim, the author had made several alterations in his work, changing some of the minor incidents of the story, and consequently suppressing some of his pages, and adding others; and, in the month of June, 1814, he conveyed, by a written paper, dated at Lausanne, in Switzerland, and signed “L. DE ST. LEU,” to a particular bookseller in Paris, authority to print, from the original manuscript, with its alterations, a second edition of his book, under the new title of *Marie, ou les Hollandoises*. From this edition, the following translation has been made.’

Respecting the author, the following short history is subjoined:

‘ Considered, as the work necessarily must be, both in the reader’s imagination and in fact, with reference to the real occurrences of the author’s life, it will not be generally unacceptable to recall, in this place, the principal outlines of M. Louis Buonaparte’s career. The pages which follow will make it of some interest to know, that whatever may have been his degree of distinction, his public employments have been chiefly of a military description. He entered very young into the service, followed his brother Napoleon in all his first campaigns, and early attained to the rank of brigadier-general, and the colonelcy of a regiment of dragoons. In 1803, he was appointed president of the electoral college of the department of the Po. In 1804, he was made a counsellor of state, promoted to the rank of *général-de-division*, and dignified with the title of constable of the French empire. In 1805, he assisted at his brother’s coronation at Turin, and was invested, at the same place, with the office of governor-general of Piedmont. His health obliged him to retire, in the same year, to the waters of St. Amand, in France, whence, returning to Paris, he held, for a short time, the appointment of governor of that city. About the end of November, he went to Holland, in the nominal command of the Army of the North, and was there soon afterward made to assume the kingly government. He had married in 1802, Mademoiselle de Beauharnois, daughter of Madame de Beauharnois, the wife of Napoleon, and now, by creation of Louis XVIII., to her mother, Duchess of Saint-Leu. He has two sons by this marriage. His separation from his wife and his kingdom took place nearly at the same moment. His present residence is at Rome, and the Duchess’s at Paris. The reader will be led to recollect, in the course of the following pages, that the author’s first place of retreat from Holland was the baths of Toplitz.’

As a novel, this production has its merits and defects. The importance of virtue in promoting a happy intercourse between the sexes, and in establishing domestic felicity, is strongly inculcated throughout the story*: but the plot itself is very defective, and some

* The following remark deserves the most incessant attention of the fair sex. ‘ If women knew how much they lose by ceasing to be virtuous, even their coquetry would be frightened at the thought!’ Vol. iii. p. 65.

of the incidents are not of the most delicate character. They may suit a French, but not an English novel. The hero and heroine, Julius and Maria, form an early attachment, and devote themselves to each other: but they are speedily separated; Maria is obliged, during the reign of terror in France, to marry a nobleman whom she does not like; and Julius, being forced into the army, is made a prisoner, carried into Poland, and forms a criminal connection with a coquette. His death is reported to Maria, which seems to reconcile her to her forced marriage, and to augment her attentions to the child of which she has become the mother. On the peace, however, Julius, who had not actually perished, breaks away from the snares of his Polish mistress, and returns to his own country; the Duke, Maria's husband, takes himself out of the way by suicide, for which no motive is assigned but his disgust of earthly pleasures and his desire to taste those of the next life; and Maria, in spite of all her unnatural vows and protestations, (from which her priest absolves her,) is united to Julius. All the usual incidents which constitute these imaginary histories are pressed into the service on this occasion; and to intrigues, duels, and attacks of banditti, we have the addition of the interesting scene of a Dutch inundation. French manners are well depicted; and the quondam King of Holland has done justice to his former subjects by representing their moral character as superior to those of the rest of the continent of Europe. The translator has very justly commented on the evil of the doctrine which permits the priesthood to absolve persons from their most solemn vows; and we think that the union of Julius with Maria should not have depended on so immoral an act. — Never, perhaps, was such an account of a suicide as that of the Duke d'Ast, Maria's husband!

‘Yesterday, the Duke sent to me, begging me to go to him immediately. I found him seated in his library, very cheerful and agreeable.

‘“I only waited for you.”

‘“What to do?” said I.

‘We sat down. “Sir,” replied the Duke, “I am the happiest of men, and yet I am tired. I want to see what they are doing above-stairs. — This world has no pleasure which I have not experienced, and with which I am not disgusted. You should imitate me. Are you not curious to make the journey with me? In a few seconds, we could dive into that secret of the other life which is so carefully concealed from our eyes.”

‘I could not recover from my astonishment at this singular discourse. I thought his mind gone, and he saw into my idea.

‘“I am quite cool,” said he, “I have not lost my senses. Neither despair nor sorrow determines me to what I have resolved on.”

‘He took out the inclosed letter, stepped back a little, and killed himself with a pistol, with a laugh. When his servants came in at the noise, we tried all that could be done to save him, but it was too late. He had taken his measures decidedly, and there was still a smile upon his lips.’

The

The letter in which he justifies this rash act is still more singular, since he tells his wife that he should have taken the journey to the other world before, if religion had not detained him. He then adds:

‘Adieu, Madam:—my curiosity as to the other life is at its height, and, even without that, I should be sufficiently induced to use no more delay, by my invincible disgust at this world, and the doubts, confusion, and disquietude which the secrets of the skies have created in me for some time past, to the most tormenting degree. By no means pity me. It is I who bestow my pity upon all whom I leave vegetating and dragging themselves along mechanically upon the earth.’

Of the task of the translator, we cannot speak in terms of praise, since his language is full of Gallicisms. *Ex. gr.* ‘He lifted his *regards* (meaning his eyes) to the skies:’—‘She had been deformed by no stays, nor by *too heavy toil*:’—‘The saw-mills *assembled* round:’—‘To sneer at him *in regard* of his wife:’—‘At the last *delay* but one,’ (for stage):—‘How can I bear the smallest *ligature*,’ (for tye,) &c. &c.

Art. 13. *The English Exposé; or Men and Women “Abroad” and “at Home.”* By a Modern Antique, Author of “*Celia in Search of a Husband*,” &c. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 2s. Boards. Newman. 1814.

It is not in our power to accept this book as an accurate *exposé* of our cotemporaries, because we have never seen any men or women, abroad or at home, who much resembled the characters here introduced. That of Mrs. Evelin, which is the best drawn, may be said to afford a tolerable picture of the meanness and mortifications that are attendant on fashionable extravagance: but the pleasantry is strained and inelegant, such as calling London *Lunnon*, and terming a lady’s husband her *cara sposa*, &c. Too little incident occurs to carry the reader untired through four volumes; and the moral reflections, which are copiously interspersed, are not always original. For instance, we find in Vol. i. pp. 202. and 203. a passage which is copied verbatim, without acknowledgement, from the 16th chapter of Mrs. H. More’s “*Strictures on the modern System of Female Education*.” Some expressions also are grammatically inaccurate, as in Vol. iv. p. 114., ‘What woman could do other at such a moment?’—P. 118., ‘The unions they facilitate produce any thing than unity,’ &c. &c.

Art. 14. *The Saxon and the Gaël; or, The Northern Metropolis; including a View of the Lowland and Highland Character.* 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Tegg. 1814.

We have felt from this work a disappointment similar to that which we sometimes experience at the exhibition of the Royal Academy, when, on referring to the catalogue for some pictures that excite our curiosity, we find them described merely as “a frame containing ten miniatures.” So, in ‘*The Saxon and the Gaël*,’ all the characters in high life appear to be intended for portraits, and have neither the attitude nor the effect of historical painting; yet we are not enabled to identify them either by the costume or by their characteristic traits. The work is also overloaded with the speeches of one individual, who

is constantly distressing the other personages by his vulgarity, while he affords but little amusement to the reader. Lady Sybella, too, and her acquaintances, reproach each other 'for not possessing carriages,' and 'for employing job-horses,' in a strain of mean ill breeding which is not appropriate to splenetic persons of rank. Some Scotisms and grammatical errors must likewise be noticed; such as, Vol. ii. p. 45., 'We cannot be the worse of a legal witness.' — Vol. iii. p. 99., 'What business *has* old women to interfere.' — P. 142., 'If such are your terms I *am done*,' &c. — In Vol. iii. p. 41., the lines on Sir John Moore are defective in metre, viz.

'Disappointed in those he was fighting to save,
Deserted, *barrassed* in the hour of distress,'

unless we give a wrong quantity to *barassed*.

Notwithstanding these inaccuracies, the present novel evinces talents; the description of Scottish national amusements is spirited; and the letters of the old piper, Donald, are humorous and characteristic.

Art. 15. *The Scotchwoman*. By Anthony Frederick Holstein. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Newman. 1814.

We cannot regard this as one of Mr. Holstein's best productions, the first part of the story being tame, and the conclusion totally unnatural: while the adventures of Julius and the Indian girl are not such as could occur either in Scotland or in Hindustan. Yet the reader will here find some sensible observations and amusing speculations on female temper, though obscured by such grammatical errors as the following: Vol. i. p. 29., 'He inflicted a real violence *in* his own lacerated feelings.' — Vol. ii. p. 148., 'The spirit of Janet had momentarily *sank*.' — We cannot understand the hero when he says, 'The paths of vanity were to me strewed with the *poppies of reason*,' Vol. i. p. 51.; — and, p. 231., 'The pitying drops I shed seemed to fall as the *balm of millenium blessing* on his withered affections.'

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Art. 16. *The Englishman at Verdun; or the Prisoner of Peace*. A Drama in Five Acts. By James Lawrence. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Hookham.

We spoke of Mr. Lawrence's *Picture of Verdun* in our Number for December 1810, and the present publication is a sort of dramatized supplement to it. The characters of the English *detenus*, we are sorry to observe, Mr. L. continues to represent in a very unfavourable light; and those of the French commandant, his *lady*, and associates, as equally contemptible and detestable. He has, however, partly redeemed the credit of each nation by the introduction of such persons as Trafford, Gondal, and their sisters. The whole may afford some amusement, and (we fear) a too correct idea of facts as they were displayed at Verdun during the confinement of the English at that place: some good passages also occur in the speeches of Trafford, Gondal, and one or two others: but a *grossi-*

creté appears throughout which is rather revolting, especially in *Madame Vaurien*, the wife of the General.

Art. 17. *The Missionary*; a Poem. By W. L. Bowles. Second Edition, corrected and enlarged. Crown 8vo. pp. 199. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1815.

On its first appearance we gave some account of this beautiful little poem in the lxxiii^d Vol. of our New Series, p. 366.; and though, for an obvious reason, we usually abstain from noticing second editions, we are induced in the present instance to depart from our rule, in order to give in its proper place the name of the author, and also to inform the public that he has made his epic more perfect by availing himself of some objections that were made against it in its original form; ‘the most material of which,’ he says, ‘was the circumstance that the Indian maid, described in the first book, had not a part assigned to her of sufficient interest in the subsequent events of the poem, and that the character of the Missionary was not sufficiently professional.’ By endeavouring to obviate these remarks, Mr. Bowles has certainly rendered his poem more finished. In order to judge of the alteration which it has undergone, the reader may compare the conclusion of the extract in p. 370. of our lxxiii^d Vol. with the following passage at p. 46. of this second edition:

“ ‘I come to thee for peace!’ the Youth replied:
 “ Oh, there is strife, and cruelty, and pride,
 In this sad CHRISTIAN world; my native land
 Was happy, ere the soldier, with his band,
 Of fell destroyers, like a vulture, came,
 And gave the peaceful scenes to blood and flame.
 When will the turmoil of Earth’s tempests cease?
 Father, I come to thee for peace—for peace!”

“ Seek PEACE,” the Father cried, “ with God above:
 In his good time, all will be PEACE and LOVE.

“ ‘We mourn, indeed, mourn that all sounds of ill,
 Earth’s fairest scenes with one deep murmur fill;
 That yonder Sun, when Evening paints the sky,
 Sinks, beauteous, on a world of misery;
 The course of wide destruction to withstand,
 We lift our feeble voice—our trembling hand;
 But still, bow’d low, or smitten to the dust,
 FATHER OF MERCY! still in thee we trust!
 Through good or ill, in poverty or wealth,—
 In joy or woe, in sickness or in health,—
 Meek Piety thy awful hand surveys,
 And the faint murmur turns to prayer and praise!
 We know — whatever evils we deplore —
 THOU HAST PERMITTED, AND WE KNOW NO MORE!’ ”

Art. 18. *The False Alarm*; or the Eastern Mistake, a Poem, to which is subjoined the Cow’s Petition, most respectfully inscribed to the Cultivators of Mangel Wurzel. By Giles Esculent, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

Some

Some wag, under the assumed name of Mr. Esculent, here endeavours to ridicule the prejudices which certain farmers had conceived against the use of the Mangel Wurzel in feeding cows, thinking that it dried up their milk. Unluckily, such a subject is not well adapted to verse; and Mr. Esculent, in maintaining the credit of Mangel Wurzel against its defamers, aims at more pleasantry than he is able to produce. Such *so-so* stanzas as the following may suit a song at a tithe-feast, but are not calculated for a published poem :

‘ My dairy cows, for many years,
Have frisk’d their tails and cock’d their ears,
And thought it quite a treat.
That they had din’d ;
As I inclin’d
To let them do, on Beet.

‘ Whilst this they hail’d,
The bag ne’er fail’d,
Its triumph was compleat ;
The pail was full,
An ample pull
Distended every teat.

‘ Of these good things,
Our village rings,
No paralytic cow
Hath giv’n us cause,
To stint applause,
Much less to knit the brow.’

The cow’s petition is in rather a better style; and if we may credit the testimony of a dying cow, who sings like the Swan in death, the *root of Scarcity* has been grievously defamed :

‘ Now with my dying breath I will declare,
(Tho’ some men may with arguments seduce,)
That cows on *Wurzel* fed will better fare,
And more sweet flavor’d butter will produce.’

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *A new Spanish Grammar*, designed for every Class of Learners, but especially for such as are their own Instructors. By L. J. A. M’Henry, a Native of Spain. 12mo. pp. 323. Sherwood and Co.

Considerable pains are taken in this grammar, in stating the rules by which the construction of Spanish sentences is governed; and, though the author has not been always equally successful, we think that some of his elucidations, particularly those in which he discriminates between the use of the verbs *ser* and *estar*, p. 135., and the tenses of the subjunctive mood, p. 240., will prove satisfactory and useful. Mr. M’Henry gives a correct definition of the *Asonante*, p. 312., but is silent as to the mode of applying that peculiar species of rhyme which characterizes the versification of the Spanish drama.

We must remark, also, that he does not appear to be aware, p. 4., that the *a* in *acre* is sounded like the French *é fermé*; while the Spanish *e*, as we understand, is always sounded like the *è ouvert*. The English *r* corresponds with the single *r* of the Spaniards, and not with the double *rr* which resembles the harsh *r* of the French and Germans. (P. 6.) Words containing both species of *r* are used by the Spaniards as a double Shibboleth, not only ascertaining that the party is a foreigner, but fixing the country to which he belongs.

Art. 20. *A Grammar of the French Language*, in which the Rules are illustrated by Examples selected from the best Authors, by C. Laisné, Teacher of Languages, &c. &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Dulau and Co.

In the present work, as well as in his Spanish and Portuguese grammars, (See our Rev. Vol. lxx. N.S. pp. 106, 107.) M. Laisné judiciously “avoids all tedious disquisitions on the principles of general grammar,” and gives examples from the writings of esteemed authors, instead of the dialogues which are usual in similar publications. His extracts are generally well chosen: but a little more discrimination was necessary between those idiomatic phrases which should be read merely in order to be understood, and those which may be adopted in conversation. This observation applies particularly to the passages from Don Quixote and Gil Blas; which, as they are here given, may lead a student into the egregious mistake of mixing with the polished language of Buffon and Fenelon such inelegant proverbial expressions as the following: p. 231., ‘*trouver une franche lippée*,’ to feast for nothing; p. 234., ‘*lui donne le croc en jambe*,’ tripped up his heels; p. 235., ‘*bien jouer des mâchoires*,’ to make a good use of one’s teeth; ‘*pour me tirer les vers du nez*,’ to press me, &c. &c.

Art. 21. *A Key to the Re-translation of the English Examples in the French Grammar*, intended to serve as a Test of Accuracy. By C. Laisné. 12mo. Dulau and Co. 1814.

This companion to the preceding grammar will be particularly useful to those who study French without the constant help of a master.

Art. 22. *A copious Collection of instructive and entertaining Exercises on the French Language*, with the different Parts of Speech and Rules of Grammar prefixed to every Article. By C. Laisné. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

Since these passages are selected from the works of St. Pierre, Buffon, Mme. de Sevigné, &c. they may be considered as examples of correct and elegant French writing; and they are so disposed as to furnish separate exercises on all the different parts of speech, which we consider as an ingenious and improving arrangement.

Art. 23. *A Key to the copious Collection of instructive and entertaining Exercises on the French Language*, or the original French of the English Examples faithfully transcribed. By C. Laisné. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

In this companion to the above work, we have noticed a few typographical errors besides those which are mentioned among the errata. For instance, in page 53. '*Le Roi l'a (la) fit mettre.*' Page 62., '*On peut trouver un verre (ver) sous la dure coque d'une aveline,*' &c.

Art. 24. *Tables of the different Parts of Speech in French.* By C. Laisné. On Sheets, in a Pocket Case. 4s. 6d. Dulau and Co.

These tables may be found useful, because they comprize the rudiments of the French language in a small compass, and in the convenient form of a grammatical pocket-companion.

Art. 25. *Practical Hints to Young Females, on the Duties of a Wife, a Mother, and a Mistress of a Family.* By Mrs. Taylor, of Ongar. Author of "*Maternal Solitude for a Daughter's best Interests.*" 12mo. 5s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1815.

We have pleasure in recommending this little work, in which a sensible practice is founded on Christian principles, and in which the several subjects are judiciously distributed, and treated in a manner which must interest as well as convince. Yet we must observe that Mrs. Taylor has not quite exhausted the topic of domestic duties; and it will perhaps be wished that, in those chapters which treat of family-economy and the management of children, she had descended more into particulars, and, in addition to her valuable general remarks, had furnished some suggestions for particular situations, as well as more advice relative to those cares and arrangements which usually devolve on young mistresses of families with slender incomes.

Art. 26. *The principal Events in the Life of Moses, and in the Journey of the Israelites from Egypt to Canaan.* By Henry Lacey. 12mo. Half-bound. Darton and Co. 1815.

This little book contains a series of prints which may serve, in the nursery or family-school, to direct the attention of young persons to the chief incidents in the life of Moses, and of course to facilitate their acquaintance with the history of that illustrious leader and lawgiver of the Jews. Mr. Lacey has subjoined scriptural illustrations of each print.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 27. *Remarks on Methodism; intended to shew its Discordance in certain Points with the Gospel of Jesus Christ.* By a Minister of the Church of England. 8vo. pp. 241. 7s. 6d. Boards. Otridge, &c.

To argue or expostulate with Fanaticism is a very hopeless undertaking, since this fantastic lady will see through no lens but her own, and disdains the use of all other glasses. Elated by a kind of spiritual pride, and confiding in something which is mistaken for inspiration, she rejects all views of religion which square not with her creed, as the mere spawn of carnal reason, as the abortions of a fallen and polluted creature. In spite of all that we can do, she will ride her own hobby-horse, or hippogryph; and if she travels into regions beyond.

beyond the ken of common-sense, perhaps the best way would be to leave her undisturbed to journey on to the valley of the moon. Some persons, however, will try the effect of sober advice, and reason with those who seem to pride themselves in kicking reason out of doors. The clergyman before us has taken great pains in collecting the records of infatuation and the rantings of enthusiasm; and, by shewing their discordance with Scripture as well as their bad tendency, he hopes to shame the preachers of the sect, against which he writes, out of their extravagant dogmas: but we fear that he will labour in vain. He may ‘contrast the fundamental doctrines of Christianity, delivered by Christ and his apostles, with those which are maintained by many modern teachers:’ — he may expose the errors of those who lay an undue stress on feeling and experience as evidences of conversion; — he may quote the words of Scripture in opposition to this delusion; — he may state instances of methodistical infatuation, out of their publications; — he may give proofs of their founding doctrines on texts detached from their context; — he may be angry with them for their charges against the clergy, and for their zeal without charity; — he may ridicule their pretences to spiritual illumination; — he may reprobate the high indecorum of females talking of “folding the dear Jesus in their arms,” as if he were some “lusty paramour;” — he may urge the answer of a good conscience as a test of sanctification, moral fitness as a requisite qualification for the Divine favour, and Christian practice as the true criterion of Divine grace; — all will be of no avail. The intention, however, of the author of these reflections on Methodism we must allow to be good; and, if they make no impression on zealous members of this sect, they may induce those who are not prepossessed in its favour to consider well the nature and consequences of the doctrines which are presumptuously termed Evangelical.

Art. 28. *Thoughts on the Probability of our being known to each other in a future Life.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson and Co.

Proficiscor ad Catonem meum, says Cicero in the contemplation of a future existence; and, if death promotes the re-union of those gifted and virtuous friends whom it for a time separates, it is “a consummation devoutly to be wished.” The author of the present pamphlet encourages this pleasing thought; and, not satisfied with observing that we find nothing in the Scriptures which forbids us to entertain the expectation of meeting our friends again beyond the grave, he proceeds to adduce several passages which he conceives are favourable to it: yet, as no text bears a direct evidence, we are left in some uncertainty. It is contended that, ‘*if past consciousness remains*, a mutual recognition *must* eventually take place.’ At the end, we are referred to a Dissertation on the same subject by Dr. Price, who has treated it with more ingenuity than the present author. See his Four Dissertations.

Art. 29. *Discourses for Domestic Use.* By Henry Lacey. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. Boards. Longman and Co.

Bad as the times are, “all,” to use the language of the good old Book, “have not bowed the knee to Baal.” With many families,
domestic

domestic religion is still in request ; and, as the card-table is not now in requisition on the evenings of the Lord's day, (except with persons of extreme dissipation,) it may be presumed that sermons for domestic use may, at least once in a week, be read by heads of families to their children and servants. This private method of employing the Sunday-evening is, indeed, preferable to the practice of frequenting what are called Evening Lectures, which are attended with some bad consequences. To those who resolve that "they and their house shall serve the Lord," the discourses of Mr. Lacey will be very acceptable : since they are plain, serious, and shorter than most published sermons : though we cannot think with Mr. L. that any one of them can be delivered, (unless by a very rapid orator,) in fifteen minutes. If the writer enters more into doctrinal points than it was necessary for him to do in exhortations designed for the domestic circle, still he endeavours to place them in a moral point of view. Even the doctrine of the particular election of certain persons to everlasting life, (which he is persuaded is established beyond a doubt in the New Testament, though one of the deep things of God, and beyond the comprehension of reason,) Mr. Lacey would turn to a practical use : but the doctrine of the election of moral characters, according to the declaration of Scripture, "God has chosen the godly for himself," involves none of the difficulties which press on the tenet of personal election, is certainly more intelligible, and can easily be directed to a moral purpose : while that for which Mr. L. contends cannot possibly be cleared of all objections.

Art. 30. *The Prophecy of Ezekiel concerning Gogue*, the last Tyrant of the Church, his Invasion of Ros, his Discomfiture, and final Fall ; examined, and in Part illustrated. By Granville Penn, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 230. Boards. Murray. 1814.

With utter astonishment, but with no conviction of its truth, have we perused this *illustration*, as it is called, of Ezekiel's prophecy concerning Gog ; which is meant in the above title to be pronounced long, and as one syllable, *Gogue*. Mr. Penn may designate our critique by whatever epithet he pleases ; we cannot expect his forgiveness : but we should not forgive ourselves if we shrunk from the duty which his present work imposes on us. Though he writes with seriousness, with a great display of learning, and no doubt with the best design, he appears to us to have exerted his strength to little purpose, and to have established not one point for which he so strenuously contends. We are persuaded that Ezekiel would more than smile, if he could read the pages before us, called illustrations of the prophecy which he delivered concerning Gog and Magog. When we peruse Mr. Penn's attempts to prove that *Ros*, *Mosc*, and *Tobl**, mean Russia, Mos-

* These words do not occur in our translation of Ezekiel, xxxviii. 2. but Mr. Penn forms a version of his own to favour his purpose. He will make ראש (*rash*), the Hebrew word which signifies *head*, to be a proper name, and to mean Russia ; מֶשֶׁךְ (*Meshech*) to be *Moscow*, and תּוּבַל (*Tubal*) to be *Tobl*. Having thus prepared the text, he proceeds with his comments.

cow, and Tobolaki, or Siberia, we think that he might as well have said that they mean Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Canada. The names, indeed, are more similar: but, if he is to be guided by similarity of names, surely it will be difficult to discover Bonaparte in Gogue, and France in Magog. This gentleman seems to give himself great credit on the score of having predicted the subversion of Bonaparte's colossal power: but it by no means follows that, because he was right in his conjecture, the prophet Ezekiel many centuries ago contemplated the same event. On the face of the prophecy it is manifest that he did not; for on the principle that '*actual events* are the *only key* granted to man for explicating the arcana of prophecy,' we shall be at a loss to find in Bonaparte's invasion of Russia sufficient facts to identify him with the Gog of Ezekiel. An army fighting with bows and arrows cannot mean an army in which no bows and arrows are used; *fire* and *brimstone* cannot mean a severe frost; the *land of Israel* cannot mean Siberia; nor the *mountains of Israel* designate Russia. Besides, it is prophesied of Gog, or Gogue, that he was to invade Ros from the north, and that he was to fall, together with all his bands, on the mountains of Israel; now the invasion of Russia by Bonaparte was from the south; and we know that, though his bands perished by thousands, he did not fall with them. For Mr. Penn's representation of Bonaparte as the last tyrant of the Church, nothing in the state of the world affords the smallest pretext. In contests between sovereigns, power often changes hands, but it does not become more *christianized*; and, since the discomfiture of Bonaparte has led to the re-establishment of the Inquisition, the Christian Church cannot be said to have gained much by his fall. A man must contemplate passing events through singular optics, to be impressed with the notion that 'the period of time in which we are now living is the winding up of this present dispensation.' He who makes such an assertion as this must be '*rash*;' not he who treats it as unfounded and visionary.

HISTORY.

Art. 31. *Studies in History*; containing the History of Greece, in a Series of Essays, &c. &c. and a correct Map of Antient Greece. By Thomas Morell. Vol. I. Second Edition, corrected. 12mo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Co.

Mr. Morell's epitome of Grecian history is already known from the former edition. It is adapted for the use of young persons by a careful omission of those incidents which involve indelicate particulars, or exhibit different opinions in morality from those of the Christian world. Reflections, needlessly diffuse but of the most pious tendency, accompany the narrative, and close the several chapters with edifying but tedious perorations. The manner of Rollin is especially imitated; indeed, he seems to have supplied the main basis of fact, or narrative. A critical history is perhaps not expected, or desired, from those who write professedly for the juvenile population of the country; it may suffice to be pure, orderly, and correct: but we recommend a considerable abridgment of the reflections, which in-cumber the memory and the patience.

The

The history is divided into three books, of which the first terminates at the commencement of the Persian war, the second at the end of the Peloponnesian war, and the third at the conquest of Greece by the Romans.

P O L I T I C S.

Art. 32. *Polemiomania Britannica*; or Britons War mad. By a Student of the Law. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Printed for the Author. 1815.

Prophecy, even in its lowest department, *conjecture*, is very hazardous; and events have shewn that this law-student's anticipations of the continuance and unfavourable result of the present war were not those of a conjurer. History, however, which makes us acquainted with the consequences that followed the irruptions of the northern barbarians into cultivated and civilized Europe, may justify a writer in being apprehensive of new miseries from the introduction of Tartars and Cossacks into Germany. It must be confessed that the annexation of Poland to the before enormous power of Russia greatly increases her means of invasion, and may afford her a future opportunity of seizing on Germany: but for the fate of the latter empire it may not be easy to make Britons very solicitous. This writer will probably effect a much deeper impression on our speculative politicians, when he supposes a successor of Alexander to arise, with the ambition of a Kouli Khan, or a Bonaparte, whose object will be to overthrow our empire in the East, to reign sole lord of Asia and Europe, and to blot even Great Britain itself from the list of independent nations. However, amid our present brilliant successes, few persons will suffer their joy to be lowered by these gloomy surmises of what may hereafter happen.

Art. 33. *The Reformers vindicated*; or a few plain Reasons why the present Constitution of these Realms ought to be immediately abolished. By a Liveryman of London. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1815.

Our modern reformers will not much relish this mock vindication, which is conducted in the ironical style of Swift's "Reasons for not immediately abolishing Christianity," but wants his humour to enliven it. The left-handed advantages proposed from an abolition of our civil and religious constitution are stated, for the purpose of impressing the reader with a conviction of its value. In short, the pamphlet is meant as a laugh at the Whigs; who, it is intimated, when they talk of reform, mean nothing less than total subversion. The irony, however, is not sufficiently piquant to produce the intended effect; and, as the attack wants both *fact* and *fun*, it is a *telum imbellè*.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Art. 34. *Observations on Works of Fiction in general*, and particularly those for Childhood and Adolescence. 12mo. pp. 79. 4s. Boards. Colburn.

A lady was inquiring of a celebrated novel-writer what induced him to give certain delineations of character; intimating, at the same time, that he must have been animated by their strong moral effect.

"Madam,"

“Madam,” he replied, “I thought only of what would sell my book.” We may almost say, *Ex uno, disce omnes*. Weavers of fiction, like weavers of tapestry, study effect, and think less of improving than of pleasing mankind. It may even be questioned whether they will condescend to take advice, if it be not directed to the latter purpose. What success, therefore, this well-written essay will obtain, we do not venture to pronounce: its commendable object being to direct the streams of fiction into channels of utility, and to put those in a good track who ‘write less from the impulse of genius, than from that of necessity.’ We suspect, however, that this class of scribblers will be like the gentleman above mentioned, and look more to the sale than to the moral merit of their works: but every person, who undertakes to instruct, must run the chance of throwing away his hints. Some of our best modern novelists will receive pleasure from the encomiums on them which they will find in this essay; and, whatever may be the impression on those who write either for “pudding or praise,” we are glad to find it observed in this lecture for fiction-mongers that ‘an ill effect of inferior novels arises from the vague indefinite idea which they excite of happy and wonderful extrication, and the confused expectations which they engender in weak minds of extraordinary aggrandizement and the fruition of the wildest wishes;’—that ordinary novels afford a very false view of life by encouraging ‘an expectation of the eternal sunshine of love;’—and that, generally, tales of fiction, by occupying the imagination ‘on the pleasure of possessing things beyond our reach, lead us earnestly to covet them, to dissatisfaction with our allotted state in life, and to irregular and unsatiable desire.’

That part of the essay which respects fictions for childhood and adolescence contains some sensible strictures. The remarks, also, which are offered at p. 72. on forming an alluring tale for the purpose of exciting a quick perception of merit, and an enthusiastic feeling of the charm of genius, even in those who enjoy not the talent itself, certainly merit regard; and they may possibly ‘convince some readers of the advantage of continuing a course of study after the control of education has ceased.’

Art. 35. *Reflections on the Education of the Poor*, submitted particularly to the Consideration of the Landholders and principal Manufacturers. By Andrew Irvine, A.M. Vicar of North Molton, &c. Second Edition, with Additions. 8vo. pp. 72. Lloyd.

When in our last Number (p. 217.) we took notice of the first edition of this pamphlet, we were not aware that our large heap of publications concealed the improved edition of these Reflections, to which the name of the reverend author is affixed. Looking, however, for other books, we found the pamphlet now before us; and we avail ourselves of the first opportunity of apologizing to Mr. Irvine for not having announced his work in its most perfect form. We need not again travel over the ground which he has so ably occupied, but shall warmly recommend the expanded ideas, with the old and the new matter, which these pages contain, to the consideration of country-gentlemen, clergy, and rich manufacturers.

Art.

Art. 36. *Thoughts on the Management and Relief of the Poor ; on the Causes of their Increase, and on the Measures that may be best calculated to amend the former, and check the latter.* By William Clark, Esq. a Magistrate acting in the County of Somerset. 8vo. pp. 67. Longman and Co. 1815.

To the impolicy of our system of poor-laws, this magistrate is thoroughly awake ; and he quotes various authorities in justification of his strictures on it. ‘Charity,’ he observes, ‘in order to be consistent with public welfare, should be most solicitous to stop short of encouraging *vice*, and equally cautious not to injure the principle of *industry*.’ Our poor-laws, however, overlook both of these points : but these, he thinks, ought not to be any longer passed over ; the misunderstanding and misapplication of the forty-third of Elizabeth should be corrected ; and ‘the inroad of public charity on public welfare should be strenuously resisted.’ Mr. C. wishes to check the *gangrene of pauperism*. He would relieve the *impotent*, but enforce industry on the *able*. The experiment of work-houses, and houses of industry, has failed to promote industry. He contends that, ‘1st, The government of houses of industry is, for the most part, radically bad.

‘2dly, That, instead of relieving the industrious part of the community, or abating parochial burthens, they have a tendency to injure the one, and inevitably to add to the other in an alarming degree. And,

‘3dly, That instead of providing better for the poor, and increasing their comforts, their operation is to augment their distresses ; to introduce a system of slavery and coercion that degrades, debilitates, and unnerves them for every desirable social or political purpose.’

These positions are well illustrated : but we are much concerned to add that the remedy which he proposes for the cure of the evils is not likely to be applied.

It may be truly observed,

‘That statesman would be elevated to a god-like eminence, whose talents and energies could direct the public mind to the desired reformation, by introducing simplicity of manners and purity of morals ; useful and healthy pursuits, particularly directed to agricultural improvements on waste lands, &c. for the more general employment of the poor ; and by affixing a moral restraint on those elegant attainments and amusements that more especially distinguish the habits and manners of the higher orders. All would combine to produce a healthy, hardy, and intelligent population, energetically ready and able to resist and punish in war all foreign aggressions ; or in peace, to enjoy in dignified and chaste simplicity all the *real* pleasures of life, arising out of the possession of sound minds in sound bodies.’

We should be happy to witness the adoption of such a plan ; for it is very certain that the steady suppression of vice, and the un-deviating encouragement of virtue, must promote the improvement of the lower orders, and in consequence thin the ranks of pauperism.

Yet,

Yet, when riches exist in a state, their concomitant, luxury, will be found, and the dark side of luxury is poverty.

Art. 37. *The Philosophic Mouse*; or a pleasing Explanation of some philosophical Subjects, included in the Narrative of a Mouse. By Jonathan Greaves. Small 8vo. pp. 128. 3s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Co. 1815.

Various expedients are tried to awaken curiosity, and to inveigle the young to the acquisition of knowledge. Mr. Greaves thought, perhaps, of giving an air of novelty to his scientific explanation, by converting a little quadruped into a letter-writer, and a philosophic Mouse may be as easily imagined as a narrative Cushion: yet the *is-credulus odi* is an exclamatory condemnation which will probably burst forth in both cases; and we should honestly confess, if our opinion were asked, that we perceive no benefit likely to be obtained by such palpable impossibilities. The philosophic Mouse here brought on the stage plays a part so completely out of nature, that we question whether even a child can be pleased with it. A mouse speaking in a short fable is not a parallel case with a mouse gravely lecturing in a number of letters on a series of philosophic subjects; and letters from *Long-tail* to his dear cousin *Short-tail* on the Microscope, Oxygen Gas, Electricity, Astronomy, &c. cannot surely be tolerated. It is ridiculous to exhibit a little reptile offering reasons for concluding that the sun is not a body of fire, and explaining the magnitude, distance, and revolutions of the planets to a cousin mouse in his hole.

At all events, if Mr. Greaves will speak *in personâ muris*, he should take care to make his philosophic Mouse philosophically correct: but when at p. 12. he tells his young readers that, as the eye of a fly has 700 apertures, 'if the sight were directed to a church the fly would perceive 700 churches at once,' he asserts what is probably not true; for he might as well have said that, because we have two eyes, we see all objects double. When also at p. 32. he states that, 'if a hole could be made quite through the centre of the earth, and a large mill-stone let fall from the surface into the hole, it would rapidly descend until it came to the centre of the earth, and there it would remain suspended,' no calculation is made of the *momentum* which the stone would acquire in its descent, and by which it would be carried beyond the centre; nor of the vibration which this stone would have before it came to a state of rest at the centre. At p. 109. the length of our year is said to be '365 days 6 hours and 9 minutes:' but, if this statement be correct, our mode of adjusting time by adding one day to every fourth year, and omitting the intercalation at every hundredth, cannot be right. — After he has made his Mouse reason, write, and dream, Mr. G. puts him to *roost*; and, as we now find him with the poultry, we do not hesitate to give him a little *roasting*.

Art. 38. *The Rejected Pictures*, &c. with descriptive Sketches of the several Compositions by some *Ci-devant* and other *Cognoscenti*: (being a Supplement to the Royal Academy Catalogue of 1815.) To which are added, a few of the secret Reasons for their Rejection, by a distinguished Member of the Hanging Committee. 8vo. pp. 120. 5s. 6d. sewed. Kirby. 1815.

On the supposition that many works of art are refused admittance into the collection which forms the annual *Exhibition* at Somerset House, the author of this *jeu d'esprit* here pretends to give a catalogue of such as were denied this honour in the present year; with some remarks or mottoes subjoined to each, extracted, as applicable to the purpose, from celebrated writers of prose and verse, English, French, Latin, &c. or from his own pen under assumed denominations. Considerable reading and recollection are displayed in these citations, with various degrees of humour in the adaptation of them: but a principal object with the writer seems to be to convey his ideas on some architectural points, to satirize individuals in that profession, and to eulogize Mr. Chantrey the sculptor. The great merit of this artist will be generally acknowledged: but perhaps it will not be much served by such a panegyrist as the present, whose hostility to others is so general and indiscriminating, and whose partialities are so confined and so glaring.

We select a few samples: but some of the most *piquant* are too political or too severely personal for us to meddle with them:

' 21. *Portrait of the Hon. and Rev. — W—ll—sl—y, Rector of Ch—ls—a, Vicar of ———, &c. &c. &c. &c. &c.*

—— "Nolo episcopari."

' The assertion was not believed by the Committee. HANGMAN.'—

' 26. *Portrait of Mr. W. S—th, M. P. for N—r—ch, in the act of presenting the Trinity Bill to the House of Commons.*

"I believe in one God the Father Almighty, and"—

APOSTLES' CREED.

—— "No more."

SHAKSPEARE.

' The *orthodox feelings* of the Academy were horror-struck at the attempt to introduce this picture. HANGMAN.'—

' 40. *Portrait of L—d T—l—w, in his Study, preparing a new edition of M—nl—t!*

' "Best sing it to the tune of *light o'love*,
It is too heavy for so light a tune."

SHAKSPEARE.

' "Aut insanit homo, aut versus facit."—

HORACE.

' "Let me not live if ever I saw any thing more loose, and almost more childish."—

WHITAKER.

' "'Tis ridiculous for a lord to print verses: 'tis well enough to make them to please himself, but to make them public is foolish."—

SELDEN.

' The committee had rejected this portrait, conceiving it a libel on his Lordship, as the artist, amongst other papers on the table, had endorsed one, 'Appointment of Clerk for the Custody of Idiots and Lunatics.'—A recent inspection of the Court Calendar has satisfied them that the painter only intended a harmless reference to one of his Lordship's honours. HANGMAN.'—

' 114. *A Piece of Still Life, in the Style of Mr. Heaphy.*

"Urceoli, pelves, sartago, patellæ."

JUVENAL.

' The Academy encourages no rival exhibitions. HANGMAN.'—

' 123. *Sketch of the Painting Room of a Keeper of the R—l A—d—y.*

"His

“ His chamber was dispaigned all within,
 With sundry colours, in the which were writ
 Infinite shapes of things dipersed thin ;
 Some such as in the world were never yet,
 Ne can devised be of mortal wit :
 Some daily seen and knowen by their names,
 Such as in idle fantasies do flit ;
 Infernal hags, centaurs, fiends, hippodames,
 Apes, lions, eagles, owls, fools, lovers, children, dames.” SPENSER.

‘ Mr. F—s—li having some private objections to the exhibition of this picture, it was rejected in compliment to him. HANGMAN.’—

‘ 186. *A Lusus Naturæ, in the Cabinet of the R—y—l S—c—ty. Painted for Mr. P—ne Kn—t.*

“ A thing more strange than on Nile’s slime the sunne
 E’er bred, or all which into Noah’s ark came :
 A thing which would have pos’d Adam to name :
 Stranger than seven antiquaries’ studies,
 Than Africk’s monsters, Guianæ rarities,
 Stranger than strangers.”

DONNE.

‘ There was something so equivocal in this picture, that even the unfettered minds of the Ac—d—m—ns were startled. HANGMAN.’

Allusion is made at length, and with severity, at p. 32. &c. to some supposed intended alterations in Windsor Park, by which the public are to be excluded : but we are not sufficiently apprized of the nature of the transaction to appreciate the justice of the censure.

Art. 39. *Itinerary of Buonaparte, from the Period of his Residence at Fontainebleau, to his Establishment on the Island of Elba. To which is prefixed an Account of the Regency at Blois.* 8vo. sewed. Colburn.

Publications of this nature are to be considered as more calculated to meet the feelings of the moment, than as furnishing solid matter for the genuine historian. Many are prepared to aim a kick at the fallen, and to augment the mortifications of those who, having been for a time the favourites, are now abandoned by Fortune. Some facts, however, with many exaggerations, will probably be found in these details ; the compiler of which compares Bonaparte both to *Judas* the traitor and to *Julian* the Apostate, and, after having quoted evidence to shew that the Ex-emperor was incapable of *weeping*, represents him, in three instances, as overwhelmed with tears. See pp. 347. 360. 380. 399.

No intimation is given of the authority on which these details are founded : but the first page stands here as p. 291., and therefore we suppose that they belong to a larger work.

Art. 40. *Sir William Russell’s Advice to his Son*, written in the Year 1689. Dedicated to the Father of every Family. Now first published. 12mo. 2s. Mawman. 1815.

Good and sensible parents, who are alive to the importance of early education, will lose no time in imbuing the minds of their offspring with the principles of religion, and in training them to virtuous habits. Sir Wm. Russell discovered this commendable solicitude of a father

in the advice which he gave to his son ; and its publication at the present day by his great-grandson, John Russell, Esq. of Stubbers in the county of Essex, will place Sir William's character in a respectable point of view : but it is surely very improperly dedicated to the father of *every* family, since many of the rules here given are adapted only to the son of a man of station and fortune, and are not calculated for persons in the ordinary walks of life. The directions which this pious parent has prescribed are also old-fashioned : but they are not the worse on this account. Could the children of our nobility and gentry be formed on Sir Wm. Russell's plan of education, they would unquestionably be more promising characters than they are likely to become by the present fine-gentleman-making system.

Art. 41. *Instructions to Young Sportsmen, with Directions for the Choice, Care, and Management of Guns ; Hints for the Preservation of Game ; and Instructions for shooting Wild-fowl. To which is added, a concise Abridgment of the principal Game-laws.* 12mo. pp. 150. Johnson and Co. 1814.

Young and inexperienced sportsmen are professedly, both in the title and the preface, stated to be those only to whom the writer offers this 'humble production ;' which he has intentionally kept within a small compass and moderate price, by avoiding all additions of anecdotes and embellishments of plates. Much useful instruction, however, seems to be here offered to the tyro ; and the observations relative to wild-fowl shooting will be the more acceptable because this is a branch of sporting less familiarly known.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 42. *A brief Summary of Christian Principles : —* preached at Salem Chapel, Lynn, January 1. 1815, being the Third Anniversary of the Opening of that Place of Worship, and published at the Request of the Congregation. By Thomas Finch. 8vo. Eaton.

The substance of this discourse was delivered extemporaneously, but it has been corrected and improved for publication. As its title indicates, it is a *Confession of Faith* ; in which the preacher, speaking for himself and his flock, exhibits with great plainness, candour, and liberality, those principles or doctrines which they avow as containing the real substance of Christianity. Mr. Finch has expressed himself with too much clearness to be misunderstood ; and, as he has afforded us, at the end of the sermon, an abstract of the Creed of the Salem-Chapel Christians, we shall transcribe it.

'We believe and maintain the rights of conscience—the truth and Divine authority of the Holy Scriptures—the unity of God, and the universality of his moral government—the general depravity of the human race—the necessity of the Gospel dispensation—the Divine mission and authority of our blessed Lord—the indispensable importance of faith and holiness—and the certainty of just retributions in a future state.'

The

The only defect of this abstract is that it does not sufficiently represent the fact which fully appears in the discourse, that Mr. F. and his congregation are Unitarians.

Art. 43.—Preached in St. Andrew's Church, Plymouth, Sept. 14. 1814, being the Sixteenth Anniversary of the Plymouth public Dispensary. By Robert Lampen, B.A., Lecturer of St. Andrew's. 8vo. 1s. Rees.

When our clergy are employed in promoting the numerous benevolent institutions which distinguish our favoured land, they find no difficulty in being eloquent, since the Gospel furnishes them with abundant arguments to enforce their exhortations. Mr. Lampen has drawn from this Divine source on the present occasion; and we rest assured that his appeal to the Christian principles and feelings of his audience, in behalf of the Plymouth Dispensary, was not ineffectual. In the conclusion of his discourse, after having stated the number relieved by this institution since its first establishment, (12,781,) he takes an affecting notice of the death of one of its most active friends and patrons, Dr. Bidlake; subjoining a suitable encomium on the talents and virtues of that estimable man.

Art. 44. *On the Use of Reason in Religion*, preached at George's Meeting, Exeter, Dec. 18. 1814. By James Manning. 8vo. Printed at Exeter.

With some persons, it is the constant practice vehemently to decry the use of reason in religion: but it is very certain that St. Paul, in the words of the text, (1 Cor. x. 15.) expressly commands his readers to employ this faculty in judging of the great truths which he submitted to their attention. Mr. Manning, preferring the authority of the Apostle to that of the modern fanatic, explains in a very satisfactory manner the importance of employing our rational faculties in religious investigations; and he contends not only that every man has a right, but that he should stand up for the right, to be treated as the Apostle treated the Corinthians. The reasoning of this discourse is clear and satisfactory; and the preacher, had he chosen it, might not only have defeated but even have exulted over the anti-rationals, for it is a fair inference from the words of the text that St. Paul did not class those among *the wise* who refused to exercise the privilege of judging for themselves in matters of religion.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are sorry that it is not in our power, just at present, to comply with the request of our *Friend* at Springfield.

R. P. has overlooked the object of his solicitude, which he will find in our last *Appendix*, published on the first of June with the Review for May.

If X. A. B. would continue the office which he has kindly assumed, we should be obliged by such friendly exertions.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1815.

ART. I. *Travels to the Source of the Missouri River*, by Captains Lewis and Clarke.

[Article continued from p. 243.]

THE first part of our report of this interesting expedition brought the travellers to the source of the Missouri, and left them in a situation in which their next object was to seek the means of accomplishing a passage across the rocky mountains. They knew that this stupendous range formed the highest line in this central division of the Continent; and they had been told that the head-waters of the rivers flowing to the Pacific were at no great distance from the source of the Missouri: but they were unacquainted with the width and extent of the mountainous region, and had obtained no clear idea of the distance which they should be obliged to travel before they met with navigable streams. It was to the Indian inhabitants of this uninviting territory that they were to look, both for the necessary intelligence and for assistance in accomplishing their land-journey.

With this view, Captain Lewis proceeded along a pass in hopes of discovering an Indian path, sending one man to his right and another to his left, with directions to keep their eyes attentively in quest of the same object:

‘ In this order they went along for about five miles, when Captain Lewis perceived with the greatest delight a man on horseback at the distance of two miles coming down the plain towards them. On examining him with the glass, Captain Lewis saw that he was of a different nation from any Indians we had hitherto met: he was armed with a bow and a quiver of arrows; mounted on an elegant horse without a saddle, and a small string attached to the under jaw answered as a bridle. Convinced that he was a Shoshonee, and knowing how much of our success depended on the friendly offices of that nation, Captain Lewis was full of anxiety to approach without alarming him, and endeavour to convince him that he was a white man. He therefore proceeded on towards the Indian at his usual pace: when they were within a mile of each other the Indian suddenly stopt, Captain Lewis immediately followed his example, took his

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blanket from his knapsack, and holding it with both hands at the two corners threw it above his head and unfolded it as he brought it to the ground as if in the act of spreading it. This signal, which originates in the practice of spreading a robe or a skin, as a seat for guests to whom they wish to show a distinguished kindness, is the universal sign of friendship among the Indians on the Missouri and the Rocky mountains. As usual, Captain Lewis repeated this signal three times: still the Indian kept his position, and looked with an air of suspicion on Drewyer and Shields who were now advancing on each side. Captain Lewis was afraid to make any signal for them to halt, lest he should increase the suspicions of the Indian, who began to be uneasy, and they were too distant to hear his voice. He, therefore, took from his pack some beads, a looking-glass and a few trinkets, which he had brought for the purpose, and leaving his gun advanced unarmed towards the Indian. He remained in the same position till Captain Lewis came within two hundred yards of him, when he turned his horse, and began to move off slowly; Captain Lewis then called out to him, in as loud a voice as he could, repeating the word, *tabba bone!* which in the Shoshonee language means white man; but looking over his shoulder the Indian kept his eyes on Drewyer and Shields, who were still advancing, without recollecting the impropriety of doing so at such a moment, till Captain Lewis made a signal to them to halt: this Drewyer obeyed, but Shields did not observe it, and still went forward: seeing Drewyer halt the Indian turned his horse about as if to wait for Captain Lewis who now reached within one hundred and fifty paces, repeating the word *tabba bone!* and holding up the trinkets in his hand, at the same time stripping up the sleeve of his shirt to show the colour of his skin. The Indian suffered him to advance within one hundred paces, then suddenly turned his horse, and giving him the whip, leaped across the creek, and disappeared in an instant among the willow bushes: with him vanished all the hopes which the sight of him had inspired of a friendly introduction to his countrymen.

Though much vexed at this disappointment, Captain Lewis continued his course with his two companions, one of whom carried a small flag on a pole, as a token of their friendly intentions. Two days were passed ineffectually in this search, but on the third they reached a little valley in which they were more successful:

‘ They proceeded along a waving plain parallel to this valley for about four miles, when they discovered two women, a man and some dogs, on an eminence at the distance of a mile before them. The strangers first viewed them apparently with much attention for a few minutes, and then two of them sat down as if to await Captain Lewis’s arrival. He went on till he reached within about half a mile, then ordered his party to stop, put down his knapsack and rifle, and unfurling the flag advanced alone towards the Indians. The females soon retreated behind the hill, but the man remained till Captain Lewis came within a hundred yards of him, when he too went off, though

Captain Lewis called out *tabba bone*! loud enough to be heard distinctly. He hastened to the top of the hill, but they had all disappeared. The dogs however were less shy, and came close to him; he therefore thought of tying a handkerchief with some beads round their necks, and then let them loose to convince the fugitives of his friendly disposition, but they would not suffer him to take hold of them, and soon left him. He now made a signal to the men, who joined him, and then all followed the track of the Indians, which led along a continuation of the same road they had been already travelling. It was dusty, and seemed to have been much used lately both by foot passengers and horsemen. They had not gone along it more than a mile when on a sudden they saw three female Indians, from whom they had been concealed by the deep ravines which intersected the road, till they were now within thirty paces of each other; one of them, a young woman, immediately took to flight, the other two, an elderly woman and a little girl, seeing we were too near for them to escape, sat on the ground, and holding down their heads seemed as if reconciled to the death which they supposed awaited them. The same habit of holding down the head and inviting the enemy to strike, when all chance of escape is gone, is preserved in Egypt to this day. Captain Lewis instantly put down his rifle, and advancing towards them, took the woman by the hand, raised her up, and repeated the words *tabba bone*! at the same time stripping up his shirt sleeve to prove that he was a white man, for his hands and face had become by constant exposure quite as dark as their own. She appeared immediately relieved from her alarm, and Drewyer and Shields now coming up, Captain Lewis gave them some beads, a few awls, pewter mirrors, and a little paint, and told Drewyer to request the woman to recall her companion who had escaped to some distance, and by alarming the Indians might cause them to attack him without any time for explanation. She did as she was desired, and the young woman returned almost out of breath: Captain Lewis gave her an equal portion of trinkets, and painted the tawny cheeks of all three of them with vermilion, a ceremony which among the Shoshonees is emblematic of peace. After they had become composed, he informed them by signs of his wish to go to their camp in order to see their chiefs and warriors; they readily obeyed, and conducted the party along the same road down the river. In this way they marched two miles, when they met a troop of nearly sixty warriors mounted on excellent horses riding at full speed towards them. As they advanced Captain Lewis put down his gun, and went with the flag about fifty paces in advance. The chief, who, with two men, was riding in front of the main body, spoke to the women, who now explained that the party was composed of white men, and showed exultingly the presents they had received. The three men immediately leaped from their horses, came up to Captain Lewis and embraced him with great cordiality, putting their left arm over his right shoulder and clasping his back, applying at the same time their left cheek to his, and frequently vociferating *Ah hi e! ah hi e!* "I am much pleased, I am much rejoiced." The whole body of warriors now came forward,

ward, and our men received the caresses, and no small share of the grease and paint of their new friends.'

As the party had now reached the highest ground in the Rocky mountains, or that elevated part of the Continent which constitutes the boundary between the streams flowing to the Atlantic on the one side and the Pacific on the other, their next object was to prosecute their journey westward through this cold and barren track, until they should come to a navigable stream flowing into the Columbia, the great channel of access to the western as the Missouri is to the eastern ocean. They had been told by Indians in the Mandan country, that, immediately on crossing the central ridge, they would meet with copious rivers running towards the Columbia; an account which literally was not untrue, Captain Lewis finding, at a little distance from the scene of the above-mentioned interview, a clear stream forty yards wide, and three feet deep, running to the west. It was bounded, however, on each side by a range of high mountains, and so closely confined between them as not only to be unnavigable but impassible along its banks. A still more discouraging circumstance was the total want, in this wintry region, of timber fit for building canoes. An old Indian, who was called in as knowing more than the rest of his tribe of the country to the north-west, represented the mountains as so inaccessible that neither he nor any of his nation had ever attempted to cross them; and another Indian, a native of the south-west mountains, on being questioned about his country, described it in terms scarcely less terrific. The course to the Pacific lay, he said, along rocky steeps devoid of beasts and even of birds of game, and inhabited by savages who lived in holes like bears, and fed on roots or on the flesh of such horses as they could steal. On descending from the mountainous ridge, the traveller would perceive himself in a parched desert of sand, where no animals of a nature to afford subsistence could be discovered; and, although this plain was crossed by a large river running towards the Columbia, its banks had no timber for the construction of canoes. After all these mortifying communications, there remained only the route by which some individuals of the Chopunnish tribe, living to the west of the mountains, find means to make their way to this elevated country; and the accounts given of this road also were very discouraging, the Indians being obliged to subsist for many days on berries, and suffering greatly from hunger, scarcely any game being to be obtained. Still the commanders of the expedition were not disheartened, being convinced that their men could accomplish a passage without enduring so much hardship

as Indians, who are generally accompanied by women and children.

After they had ascertained that the accounts of the impracticability of navigating the river before them were but too well founded, it became indispensable to take measures for proceeding on horseback. The men had already begun to suffer from want of food, the country affording very little except berries, and a few river-fish. The ravenousness of the Indians in devouring a beast of game when it falls in their way is emphatically described; (pp. 274, 275.) and the following anecdote offers a striking proof of the difficulties which they encounter in the chase :

‘ Capt. L. sent out Drewyer and Shields to hunt; and about the same time the young warriors set out for the same purpose. There are but few elk or black-tailed deer in this neighbourhood, and as the common red-deer secrete themselves in the bushes when alarmed, they are soon safe from the arrows, which are but feeble weapons against any animals which the hunters cannot previously run down with their horses. The chief game of the Shoshonces, therefore, is the antelope, which when pursued retreats to the open plains, where the horses have full room for the chase. But such is its extraordinary fleetness and wind, that a single horse has no chance of outrunning it, or tiring it down; and the hunters are therefore obliged to resort to stratagem. About twenty Indians, mounted on fine horses, and armed with bows and arrows, left the camp; in a short time they descried a herd of antelopes; they immediately separated into little squads of two or three, and formed a scattered circle round the herd for five or six miles, keeping at a wary distance, so as not to alarm them till they were perfectly enclosed, and usually selecting some commanding eminence as a stand. Having gained their positions, a small party rode towards the herd, and with wonderful dexterity the huntsman preserved his seat, and the horse his footing, as he ran at full speed over the hills, and down the steep ravines, and along the borders of the precipices. They were soon outstripped by the antelopes, which, on gaining the other extremity of the circle, were driven back and pursued by the fresh hunters. They turned and flew, rather than ran, in another direction; but there, too, they found new enemies. In this way they were alternately pursued backwards and forwards, till at length, notwithstanding the skill of the hunters, they all escaped, and the party after running for two hours returned without having caught any thing, and their horses foaming with sweat. This chase, the greater part of which was seen from the camp, formed a beautiful scene; but to the hunters is exceedingly laborious and so unproductive, even when they are able to worry the animal down and shoot him, that forty or fifty hunters will sometimes be engaged for half a day without obtaining more than two or three antelopes.’

It happened fortunately for the prosecution of the land-journey that the horses in this country were good, and that the

party had no difficulty in purchasing as many as were necessary for the conveyance of them and their baggage. They were thus enabled to set out in the end of August under the guidance of an old man, who, notwithstanding the dissuasion of his countrymen, undertook to conduct them to the Indians who live westward of the mountains. Arriving soon in a district in which no track could be discovered, they were obliged to cut their way through thickets of trees and brushwood along the sides of hills, where their horses not only suffered great fatigue, but met occasionally with accidents; and, though the season was still so little advanced, they found the ground in different districts covered with snow. On the ninth of September they reached the road or path commonly taken by the Indians in crossing from the Columbia to the Missouri, and learned that they might have lessened the hardships of the mountain-journey, had they considered themselves at liberty to lay up their canoes and strike off to the west before they navigated the latter river to its farthest point. A small creek at this station received the name of Traveller's Rest-creek, and will be seen to occupy a prominent place in their homeward journey.

From this spot, the party proceeded nearly due west along the Indian path, but still experienced considerable inconvenience from a deficiency of provisions. On some days, they killed only a few birds; and, being obliged to turn their horses loose at night in quest of pasture, the morning-hours were frequently passed in finding and catching them. On the 15th of August, they reached the upper parts of the river Koos-koos-kee, which affords one of the most direct channels of communication with the Columbia, but no timber in its neighbourhood fit to build canoes; nor did its channel promise an easy navigation. They were accordingly obliged to continue their journey by land, and on the 19th were cheered with the prospect of a great plain to the south-west; which, though still distant, assured them at last of an outlet from the barren region which they were traversing. By this time they had suffered so much from hunger that horse-flesh was deemed a luxury. At last, on the twenty-second, having gained the plain, they found themselves once more in an inhabited country; and they explained their pacific intentions to the Indians, who were of the tribe called Chopunnish, giving presents to the chiefs. The removal, however, from a cold to a warm district, and still more the sudden change from a scarcity to an abundance of food, proved very detrimental to the health of the men; and fortunate it was that the laborious part of the task was now, for a time at least, at an end.

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The river Koos-koos-kee being completely navigable in the place which the party had now reached, it remained only to build the requisite canoes. The wood was soon obtained; and those of the men who had sufficient strength worked at the canoes during the intervals of cool weather, which here took place during an easterly wind, exactly as, on the other side of the mountains, they had found to be the case with a westerly one. Their horses, to the number of thirty-eight, were now consigned to the care of three Indian chiefs, to be kept till their return; and the saddles, with a small supply of ammunition, were buried in a *cache* near the river. It was on the eighth of October, and from the forks at which the river properly receives the name of Koos-koos-kee, that the travellers once more proceeded by water in five canoes. Exertion was still necessary in shoals and other difficult places: but the exchange was, on the whole, wonderfully favourable, and the progress of the expedition down the current was proportionally rapid. The characters of the different Indian tribes which they passed are given with clearness and impartiality.

‘ The lives of the Shoshonees are migratory. From the middle of May to the beginning of September, they reside on the waters of the Columbia, where they consider themselves perfectly secure from the Pawkees, who have never yet found their way to that retreat. During this time they subsist chiefly on salmon, and as that fish disappears on the approach of autumn, they are obliged to seek subsistence elsewhere. They then cross the ridge to the waters of the Missouri, down which they proceed slowly and cautiously, till they are joined near the three forks by other bands, either of their own nation or of the Flat-heads, with whom they associate against the common enemy.—In this loose and wandering existence they suffer the extremes of want: for two-thirds of the year they are forced to live in the mountains, passing whole weeks without meat, and with nothing to eat but a few fish and roots. Nor can any thing be imagined more wretched than their condition at the present time, when the salmon is fast retiring, when roots are becoming scarce, and they have not yet acquired strength to hazard an encounter with their enemies. So insensible are they however to these calamities, that the Shoshonees are not only cheerful but even gay; and their character, which is more interesting than that of any Indians we have seen, has in it much of the dignity of misfortune. In their intercourse with strangers they are frank and communicative, in their dealings perfectly fair, nor have we had during our stay with them any reason to suspect that the display of all our new and valuable wealth, has tempted them into a single act of dishonesty. While they have generally shared with us the little they possess, they have always abstained from begging any thing from us. With their liveliness of temper, they are fond of gaudy dresses, and of all sorts of amusements, particularly of games of hazard; and like most Indians

fond of boasting of their own warlike exploits, whether real or fictitious. In their conduct towards ourselves, they were kind and obliging, and though on one occasion they seemed willing to neglect us, yet we scarcely knew how to blame the treatment by which we suffered, when we recollected how few civilized chiefs would have hazarded the comforts or the subsistence of their people for the sake of a few strangers.'—

'The names of the Indians vary in the course of their life: originally given in childhood, from the mere necessity of distinguishing objects, or from some accidental resemblance to external objects, the young warrior is impatient to change it by some achievement of his own. Any important event, the stealing of horses, the scalping an enemy, or killing a brown bear, entitles him at once to a new name which he then selects for himself, and it is confirmed by the nation. Sometimes the two names subsist together: thus, the chief Cameahwait, which means, "one who never walks," has the war name of Tooettecone, or "black gun," which he acquired when he first signalized himself. As each new action gives a warrior a right to change his name, many of them have had several in the course of their lives. To give to a friend his own name is an act of high courtesy, and a pledge, like that of pulling off the moccasin, of sincerity and hospitality. The chief in this way gave his name to Captain Clarke when he first arrived, and he was afterwards known among the Shoshonees by the name of Cameahwait.'

A remarkable circumstance occurred shortly after the party arrived among this mountain-tribe:

'One of the women who had been leading two of our packhorses, halted at a rivulet about a mile behind, and sent on the two horses by a female friend: on enquiring of Cameahwait the cause of her detention, he answered with great appearance of unconcern, that she had just stopped to lie in, but would soon overtake us. In fact, we were astonished to see her in about an hour's time come on with her new born infant and pass us on her way to the camp, apparently in perfect health. This wonderful facility, with which the Indian women bring forth their children, seems rather some benevolent gift of nature, in exempting them from pains which their savage state would render doubly grievous, than any result of habit. If, as has been imagined, a pure dry air or a cold and elevated country, are obstacles to easy delivery, every difficult incident to that operation might be expected in this part of the Continent: nor can another reason, the habit of carrying heavy burthens during pregnancy, be at all applicable to the Shoshonee women, who rarely carry any burdens, since their nation possesses an abundance of horses.'

The inhabitants of the plains to the west of the Rocky mountains appear to differ considerably from their neighbours on the higher ground:

'The Chopunnish or Pierced-nose nation, who reside on the Kooskooskee and Lewis's rivers, are in person stout, portly, well-looking men: the women are small, with good features, and generally handsome,

handsome, though the complexion of both sexes is darker than that of the Tushepaws. In dress they resemble that nation, being fond of displaying their ornaments. The buffaloe or elk-skin robe decorated with beads, sea-shells, chiefly mother-of-pearl, attached to an otter-skin collar and hung in the hair, which falls in front in two queues; feathers, paints of different kinds, principally white, green, and light blue, all of which they find in their own country: these are the chief ornaments they use. In the winter they wear a short shirt of dressed skins, long painted leggings and moccasins, and a plait of twisted grass round the neck.

‘ The dress of the women is more simple, consisting of a long shirt of argalia or ibex skin, reaching down to the ankles without a girdle: to this are tied little pieces of brass and shells and other small articles; but the head is not at all ornamented. The dress of the female is indeed more modest, and more studiously so than any we have observed, though the other sex is careless of the indelicacy of exposure.

‘ The Chopunnish have very few amusements, for their life is painful and laborious; and all their exertions are necessary to earn even their precarious subsistence. During the summer and autumn they are busily occupied in fishing for salmon, and collecting their winter store of roots. In the winter they hunt the deer on snow shoes over the plains, and towards spring cross the mountains to the Missouri for the purpose of trafficking for buffaloe robes. The inconveniences of that comfortless life are increased by frequent encounters with their enemies from the west, who drive them over the mountains with the loss of their horses, and sometimes the lives of many of the nation. Though originally the same people, their dialect varies very perceptibly from that of the Tushepaws: their treatment of us differed much from the kind and disinterested services of the Shoshonees; they are indeed selfish and avaricious; they part very reluctantly with every article of food or clothing; and while they expect a recompense for every service however small, do not concern themselves about reciprocating any presents we may give them.

‘ They are generally healthy—the only disorders which we have had occasion to remark being of a scrophulous kind, and for these, as well as for the amusement of those who are in good health, hot and cold bathing is very commonly used.’

Passage down the Western Rivers.—In descending the Koos-koos-kee, the travellers had many opportunities of observing the arrangements of the Indians for preserving fish, which is in fact their chief support; salmon in particular being very abundant. In some situations, especially in the Columbia, the water was so clear that these fish were seen at the depth of fifteen or twenty feet. They float in autumn down the stream in such quantities, that the Indians have only to collect, split, and dry them on their boards. Scaffolds, and wooden houses piled up against each other, for the purpose of fishing, were frequently observed; and the meadows were sometimes found

found to contain holes as places of deposit for the live captures. The Koos-koos-kee is very greatly augmented by the junction of Lewis's river from the south; and the united streams fall into the still larger flood of the Columbia nearly in longitude 120° west of Greenwich, and in north lat. $46^{\circ} 15'$. At the junction, the width of the Koos-koos-kee is five hundred and seventy-five yards, and that of the Columbia nine hundred and sixty. The Indians in this part of America are called Sokulks, and received the travellers with much hospitality:

'The Sokulks seem to be of a mild and peaceable disposition, and live in a state of comparative happiness. The men, like those on the Kimooenim, are said to content themselves with a single wife, with whom we observe the husband shares the labours of procuring subsistence much more than is usual among savages. What may be considered as an unequivocal proof of their good disposition, is the great respect which was shown to old age. Among other marks of it, we observed in one of the houses an old woman perfectly blind, and who we were informed had lived more than a hundred winters. In this state of decrepitude, she occupied the best position in the house, seemed to be treated with great kindness, and whatever she said was listened to with much attention. They are by no means intrusive, and as their fisheries supply them with a competent, if not an abundant subsistence, although they receive thankfully whatever we choose to give, they do not importune us by begging. The fish is, indeed, their chief food, except the roots, and the casual supplies of the antelope, which, to those who have only bows and arrows, must be very scanty. This diet may be the direct or remote cause of the chief disorder which prevails among them, as well as among the Flatheads, on the Kooskooskee and Lewis's river. With all these Indians a bad soreness of the eyes is a very common disorder, which is suffered to ripen by neglect, till many are deprived of one of their eyes, and some have totally lost the use of both. This dreadful calamity may reasonably, we think, be imputed to the constant reflection of the sun on the waters where they are continually fishing in the spring, summer, and fall, and during the rest of the year on the snows of a country which affords no object to relieve the sight. Among the Sokulks, too, and indeed among all the tribes whose chief subsistence is fish, we have observed that bad teeth are very general: some have the teeth, particularly those of the upper jaw, worn down to the gums, and many of both sexes, and even of middle age, have lost them almost entirely. This decay of the teeth is a circumstance very unusual among the Indians, either of the mountains or the plains, and seems peculiar to the inhabitants of the Columbia.'

The expedition was now approaching the most distant object of its destination. As it was borne along the ample current of the Columbia, the chief objects of attention were the falls of that river, which at one remarkable spot (see p. 368.) is compressed by tremendous rocks into a channel of only forty-five yards

yards wide; in which narrow space the water is of immense depth, and swells and boils with the wildest agitation. Frightful as was the aspect of the water, the party succeeded, to the surprize of the Indians, in steering the canoes through it, taking the precaution of sending by land such of the men as could not swim. A similar experiment was repeated on the next day (25th October) at a place called the Great Narrows; where the channel, for three miles, is worn through a hard rock, and is of the breadth of from fifty to a hundred yards. At some distance farther on, are the lower rapids of the Columbia, where the channel is crowded with rocks, and a very perceptible descent of the water occurs in a short space:

‘We had an opportunity of seeing to-day the hardihood of the Indians of the neighbouring village: one of the men shot a goose, which fell into the river, and was floating rapidly towards the great shoot, when an Indian observing it plunged in after it; the whole mass of the waters of the Columbia, just preparing to descend its narrow channel, carried the animal down with great rapidity; the Indian followed it fearlessly, to within one hundred and fifty feet of the rocks, where he would inevitably have been dashed to pieces; but seizing his prey he turned round and swam ashore with great composure. We very willingly relinquished our right to the bird in favour of the Indian who had thus saved it at the imminent hazard of his life.’

In the latter part of their course, the waters of the Columbia receive an increase by the influx of the Multnamah, a river of great extent, coming from the south-east. A mountain, which was observed to tower above all others, was found to be the mount St. Helen’s discerned from the sea by Captain Vancouver; and the discovery soon afterward of the tide-water left the party no longer in doubt regarding their approach to the shore of the Pacific. After having passed a perpendicular rock of the height of not less than 800 feet, to which they gave the appropriate name of Beacon-rock, they continued to hold their way down the river. On the 7th of November, they stopped at an Indian hamlet or village; and, resuming their course, ‘they’ had not gone far from this village when they enjoyed the delightful prospect of the ocean; that ocean, the object of all their labours, the reward of all their anxieties. This cheering view exhilarated the spirits of all the party, who were still more delighted on hearing the distant roar of the breakers.’

Encamp for the Winter.—The travellers having now reached the farthest limits of their journey, the next object was to find out tolerable quarters for the winter: but it was not till after a long search that the commanders discovered an appropriate situation; and so incessant was the rain that they did not get settled in it till the middle of December. Its latitude was

46° 19', and they passed three months in it without experiencing any thing like the intense cold of the interior, though exposed in other respects to a long list of inconveniences. The supply of food was precarious, being confined to the fish caught along the coast, with a few elks or other animals killed in the adjacent country; and the Indians of this quarter, having been accustomed to traffic along shore with European vessels, had learned to ask exorbitant prices for their commodities. Their circulating money consisted of blue beads, with which, as well as with merchandise, the party was by this time very scantily supplied; and the necessity of preserving some stock for their homeward journey obliged them to forego the acquisition of several articles which would have been very desirable. The Indians in this part of America are happily unacquainted with ardent spirits, but they are no strangers to the vice of gambling.

'The games are of two kinds. In the first, one of the company assumes the office of banker, and plays against the rest. He takes a small stone, about the size of a bean, which he shifts from one hand to the other with great dexterity, repeating at the same time a song adapted to the game, and which serves to divert the attention of the company, till having agreed on the stake, he holds out his hands, and the antagonist wins or loses as he succeeds or fails at guessing in which hand the stone is. After the banker has lost his money, or whenever he is tired, the stone is transferred to another, who in turn challenges the rest of the company. The other game is something like the play of ninepins: two pins are placed on the floor, about the distance of a foot from each other, and a small hole made behind them. The players then go about ten feet from the hole, into which they try to roll a small piece resembling the men used at draughts; if they succeed in putting it into the hole, they win the stake; if the piece rolls between the pins, but does not go into the hole, nothing is won or lost; but the wager is wholly lost if the chequer rolls outside of the pins. Entire days are wasted at these games, which are often continued through the night round the blaze of their fires, till the last article of clothing, or even the last blue bead is won from the desperate adventurer.'

A very good account is given (pp. 444—446.) of the traffic carried on between different tribes at the Falls of the Columbia; and their several kinds of canoes are described (pp. 433, 434.) in a clear and circumstantial manner. The common opinion, that the treatment of women affords a standard for estimating the moral character of savages, is to be taken with qualification, and does not receive a confirmation from the observations of Captains Lewis and Clarke. Among the tribes which they visited, the women received more or less attention merely in proportion as circumstances enabled them to be instrumental in procuring the means of subsistence. Wherever hunting was the grand resource,

resource, the women were considered as little better than incumbrances : but, among tribes accustomed to live on fish and roots, females, being nearly as expert as the men in obtaining supplies, -were found to possess no small share of rank and influence; slavish occupations, such as cleansing fish, gathering wood, and cooking provisions, which among other tribes devolve altogether on women, are there shared on a footing of equality; and the fair sex are permitted to speak and give their opinion freely before the men. Their advice, even, in matters of trade, is generally asked; and on some occasions they assume a tone of authority of which our readers, we suspect, can form no idea unless they belong to the happy number who have crossed the English Channel, and have witnessed the deference paid to the opinion of females by our Gallic neighbours.

‘ The observation with regard to the importance of females applies with equal force to the treatment of old men. Among tribes who subsist by hunting, the labours of the chase, and the wandering existence to which that occupation condemns them, necessarily throws the burden of procuring provisions on the active young men. As soon, therefore, as a man is unable to pursue the chase, he begins to withdraw something from the precarious supplies of the tribe. Still, however, his counsels may compensate his want of activity; but in the next stage of infirmity, when he can no longer travel from camp to camp, as the tribe roams about for subsistence, he is then found to be a heavy burden. In this situation they are abandoned among the Sioux, Assiniboins, and the hunting tribes on the Missouri. As they are setting out for some new excursion, where the old man is unable to follow, his children, or nearest relations, place before him a piece of meat and some water, and telling him that he has lived long enough, that it is now time for him to go home to his relations, who could take better care of him than his friends on earth, leave him, without remorse, to perish, when his little supply is exhausted. The same custom is said to prevail among the Minnetarees, Ahnawawas, and Ricaras, when they are attended by old men on their hunting excursions. Yet, in their villages, we saw no want of kindness to old men. On the contrary, probably because in villages the means of more abundant subsistence renders such cruelty unnecessary, the old people appear to be treated with attention, and some of their feasts, particularly the buffaloe dances, were intended chiefly as a contribution for the old and infirm.’

On being settled in their encampment, the travellers adopted the precaution of excluding the Indians from their little fortification at night, and made a point of mounting guard in due form : but on this score they had not much to fear; and their great want during the winter was in the article of game. They were frequently reduced to a single day's provisions in advance,

vance, notwithstanding all the exertions of the hunters ; one of whom, Drewyer, had passed his life in the woods, and united in a surprizing degree the dexterous aim of the frontier-huntsman with the sagacity of the Indian in following up the faintest track of an animal. This man succeeded in finding elks when they were imperceptible to almost every other eye : but, about the middle of March, these animals deserted, according to their annual custom, the haunts in the neighbourhood of the coast, and retreated inland to the mountains. It would have been very desirable for the party to have prolonged their stay till April, in hopes of the arrival of some of the trading vessels that frequent the coast : but it became necessary to take their departure sooner, on account of scarcity of food, and to improve the health of the men, who had suffered from the constant rain and confinement.

We have now brought down our report to the close of the first half of the journey of Captains Lewis and Clarke. Their return was not an operation of equal difficulty, but demanded no slight share of exertion ; their scene of operation being varied, both in the navigation of a part of the rivers and in their progress across the Rocky mountains. The details of this homeward journey will furnish materials for one more article, which we propose to insert in our next Number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Individuality ; or the Causes of Reciprocal Misapprehension : in Six Books. Illustrated with Notes. By Martha Ann Sellon. 8vo. pp. 446. 12s. Boards. Baldwin. 1814.*

EVERY reader of this title will probably exclaim that it exhibits a very singular theme for the pen of a female ; or rather, in any other age than the present, it would be really surprizing to see so much curious metaphysical inquiry and interesting moral truth exhibited together, as are here presented to us by the ingenious author. When we read her preface, enthusiastic and fanciful as a portion of it may be deemed, and still more the tables of contents to the several books of her poem, we were struck with the refined and abstract nature of the points which she had chosen for discussion ; and, we acknowlege, we were impressed with a higher notion of her powers of discrimination, in spite of some indistinct phraseology, than the perusal of the work itself has justified. The versification of this lady is indeed of the most extraordinary description. It is conversation, or perhaps argument, cut into portions of ten feet each, on subjects of the most dry philosophical

phical kind, according to the opinion of a certain class of *cursory* readers, who (like Camilla) “fly o’er the unbending corn, and skim along the main.” It is destitute of harmony, not accurate in the *framework* of grammar, and deficient in the whole effect. Connecting particles of all kinds are constantly omitted; and the perpetual recurrence of long unusual words in what is intended for rhyme has the most grotesque appearance. Our readers will instantly comprehend our meaning by a selection from any portion of the volume. We shall take a passage from the first book, which, *if studied with attention*, will impart some idea of the system of the fair author to the *student*: but we shall farther develope it afterward by a prose citation or two, which are indeed much more successful in conveying a clear meaning to the understanding. We could have chosen many passages better adapted to illustrate the particular sort of censure which we have felt obliged to express: but we are willing to give as favourable a specimen as we can:

‘ This then the whole — with life arose the tie,
And till the close of life, it cannot die.
It differently affects from differing cause :
But on humanity enacts its laws,
With whose protecting genial influence
Its subjects would not willingly dispense.
As far then as this individual thing
Which in primordial substance has its spring,
Produces union properly so called,
And confidence that cannot be appalled —
So far, when happily, united view
On tenets dear, stands spirited and true,
It must congeniality transcend,
That cannot with this vital current blend.
Without it, mental concord may be high,
But with it, two-fold is its harmony.
Deduction plain, of power in kindred blood
To aid the being nicely understood.

‘ If such component parts essential are
To form a whole so exquisitely fair ;
And such a whole important is to gain,
To cheer our travail, and to sooth our pain —
Who would not estimate each separate strength,
Draw up the close-enumerated length,
Improve his social fitness where he can
And give the wished-for meed to brother man ?
Behold the requisites in fair array —
A mood of equally-attempered sway ;
Honour.—inducing plainness, firmness, trust ;
Matter — conveyed by truth and method just ;

Attention

Attention — rivetted throughout detail ;
 Interest — too lively and sincere to fail ;
 Tendencies constitutional the same ;
 Tuition — which confederate habits frame ;
 Station and character that well compare ;
 Affection — that vicissitudes can bear ;
 Affection kindred of superior zest,
 To bind and to consolidate the rest.

‘ Vast constellation ! beautiful and bright !
 But shining only in rapt fancy’s sight.
 Who does not at this period heave a sigh
 Which mortal incapacities supply —
 A heavy sigh arising from despair
 A blessing so superlative to share ?
 And those who from this point the theme pursue
 Inclined to take a comprehensive view
 Of causes and effects — in short sojourn
 Will this plain cause and plain effect discern.’

To obviate the undesirable effects of this melancholy consciousness of our exclusive *Individuality*, and to prevent our giving up what we *can* attain,—a comparative degree of congenial feeling in our friendships,—the author returns more particularly to the subject at the opening of the last book. Here we find not only much good and *intelligible* advice, but the whole feeling of the passage is highly laudable, (as indeed is the case throughout the volume,) and we shall therefore present it to our readers, at the risk of only failing to interest those who are averse from *all* inquiries into the powers and properties of the human mind; a number which, in civilized society, we are happy to believe is every day diminishing. It will be quite unnecessary for us, after the preceding remarks, to separate our praise of the tone of thought in this extract from any thing like *toleration* of the many flat and prosaic lines which disfigure it.

‘ And is it so ? and does it then appear
 That Individuality is clear ?
 Is it determined that no two are fraught
 With equal principle, and act, and thought ?
 That those most similar, at distance thrown,
 Are often to each other quite unknown ;
 Or known, for want of frequent intercourse
 Losing the spirit of congenial force ?
 What follows but that each his way pursues
 As causes stimulate, as means amuse,
 As bias turns, till hopeless ’tis they should
 Be mutually and fully understood.
 It seems as though it were a bliss too high
 For mortal knowledge, beings born to die ;

Reserved for spiritual communion fair,
The perfect apprehension angels share,
Who knowing, known, one heart, one rapture raise,
One song of triumph, one of endless praise.

‘ But thus unsuited for experience here
Which only rises in a brighter sphere,
Shall we be childishly perverse and coy
To profit of a sweet, though tempered joy?
Shall we the solace of our years reject—
Charm of associated intellect,
Relief which from participation flows,
Encouragement that fortitude bestows,
The soothing harmonies of friendship's eye,
And charities of broad humanity—
Yield them, because inordinate the mind
Its blandishments at every point to find—
Because occasionally discord flings
Its jar o'er sensibility's quick strings,
And gives a short suspense to equal tone,
To make it more effectively its own?

‘ Oh no! let those who happily oft hear
The sound of plaintive playful echo near—
Who listen to its softly dying tone
Till it again reverberates their own—
Again pronounces the accepted strain,
And pours the full acknowledgment again—
Let them forgive the tongue, that may anon
Demur to speak the thing that they have done;
Forgive the mind that cannot quite agree
Upon the motive they so clearly see;
Forgive the heart, that, zealous where it feels,
A too-impassioned sympathy reveals!
Let them remember, that in equal way,
Though not from equal sources, *they* may stray;
Excite in turn the same regret received
And others grieve in places where *they* grieved.
Let them remember, instances are few
In which they need unkindred thinking rue,
Compared to those that wake the ready start
At once to offer welcome, and impart.
Where'er a close concurrence is denied,
The distance is alike on either side;
Each from the point of union gives offence,
One by dissent, one by accepted sense.
Sure 'tis a cordial of no trifling kind
A cincture with no healing power confined,
To meet upon the road of busy life
The frequent shelter from the storms of strife;
To know, to own, while buffeting without
A din of scoff, of heresy, of doubt,

A tasteful, comfortable fortress home,
 That stays the heart, e'en while compelled to roam ;
 That holds the sight, while other things are seen,
 And wakes 'midst wild commotion, thoughts serene !'

We shall now subjoin the passages in prose to which we have alluded, and which will enable the reader to form a candid notion of this very imperfect, but at the same time, in our judgment, very original composition: a composition which, if carefully revised, and shortened by one half, omitting all superfluous statement of the same opinions, and erasing every line that is not purely English, would reflect credit on the genius and attainments of the writer.

An extract from the preface, and another from the analysis of the last book, will perhaps afford the best insight into the ingenious theory here maintained.

' The following pages are submitted to the public with considerable anxiety and apprehension ; but not uncheered with the hope, that the peculiar nature of the subject, and the difficulty and extent of the undertaking, will secure indulgence for all defects in the execution.

' The general design of the poem is founded upon that infinite variety of character which pervades the works of creation, and furnishes nature with credentials of her divine origin : but more especially as it characterizes man, by giving to *every one* a certain singularity, and peculiar tone of mind, temper, and disposition, so as to prevent that perfect harmony of soul, and that full and clear reciprocation of thinking, which might probably be expected to result from the ties of interest, friendship, and relative connection ; for however strong the attractive influences upon any two minds may be, there is always some distinct principle which operates as an impediment to their complete union. ♣

' The investigation of these obstacles with their respective causes is the object of the present inquiry. They are multifarious in their kind, and different in their appearance, magnitude, and effect. Some may be distinguished by the most common observer, whilst others evade the eye of the strictest scrutiny. The stream is not only broken and divided by the larger stones and projections that appear above the surface of the water, but is likely to be disturbed and disunited by the secret and smaller obstacles concealed in the bed of the river. As a circle is constituted of points, and each point possesses distinct qualities of its own, becoming the centre of another circle, and so on *ad infinitum* ; so every individual forming a part of the great circle of society is possessed of some especial point or principle constituting the *focus* of his own immediate sphere of action. Thus a division of interest is created, which in a great measure may account for that disunion and misapprehension which is the phenomenon to be explained ; inasmuch as every man thereby becomes acted upon by a diversity of influences, and like a body propelled by two forces in contrary directions, he will adopt neither, but will take a line different from both.

' To

‘ To this individual peculiarity, which is thus subject to an almost indefinite combination of circumstances, arising from constitution, education, religious persuasion, relative connection, and the various interests and pursuits of life, the name of the poem is to be attributed; no word suggesting itself so comprehensive and appropriate as that of Individuality.

‘ Conscious that on a subject so intricate and infinite in its nature, she would soon be led beyond her depth, did she attempt to dive into the researches of philosophy, the authoress has only presumed to bring forward some of the more leading and prominent arguments to explain the doctrine: but, by way of illustration, she has selected the almost infinite variety of religious tenets which prevail in the world; whereby she has endeavoured not only to relieve the mind of the reader from the fatigue of dry and abstract reasoning, but to introduce subjects and occurrences, both foreign and domestic, which have of late arrested the attention of the public, and stamped so peculiar and sensible an impression upon the present æra.’

Omitting the fair author's speculations on the Millennium, we proceed to our remaining selection:

‘ Difference of conduct, and reciprocal misapprehension, the natural result of Individuality — Man not to slight the degree of harmonious character afforded him, because it does not equally vibrate at all points — but rather to appretiate, forgive, and embrace those with whom he can hold sweet communion without despoiling it by inordinate desire — Congeniality what — The charm of it — Acute sensibility at war with its enjoyment — Philosophical research determines its material incapacity for entireness — Such research in itself not sceptical — Address to Congeniality — Every object in the universe its own center — And in possession of its own sphere — Sympathy a primary law of nature — Address to Susceptibility — The infrequency of congeniality arises from corruption and deficiencies of ourselves — Examination of the heart recommended — Certain efficacy resulting from it.’

We must finish our account of this volume by the quotation of several lines and phrases, which are among the great number of those that we would strenuously advise the author to dismiss from her portfolio and her vocabulary. They need only be quoted to carry their own condemnation with them.

‘ Their jealous controversies, hairbreadth schisms,
Perversions, subdivisions, sectuarisms.’

‘ And morals, politics, arts, sciences,
Climates, and nations, and alliances.’

‘ And trill subduing of sweet Philomel.’

In the last book, are three whole pages of *unmitigated* prose, printed in the shape of poetry.

‘ Rich literäture's manifold delights.’

‘ The captivating phantäsmä appears.’

- ‘ Consuming melancholy, *vapid, shy.*’
- ‘ ’Tis more than pensiveness — than madness less —
Something that language cannot well express !’
- ‘ The realms of bitūmen and raging ~~flame~~.’
- ‘ Others place hell beneath Tenārus bold:’
- ‘ Depicted hell in Alcoran appears.’
- ‘ Rhaam Chund Pundit was no common youth.’

The notes contain some interesting extracts from documents and speeches relating to the affairs of British India, and the projects for diffusing the light of Christianity over that fair portion of the globe.

ART. III. *An Historical Sketch of the Art of Caricaturing.* With Graphic Illustrations. By J. P. Malcolm, F.S.A. Author of *Londinium Redivivum*, &c. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE Italian word *caricatura* signifies or describes the stretching, overcharging, or overloading of a painted resemblance. When the prominent or characteristic features of a likeness are carried to excess, dilated, and brought into artificial conspicuousness, beauty and proportion are indeed sacrificed, but the appropriate features and personal peculiarities of an individual are more strongly impressed on the memory, though rendered ridiculous by enlargement and incongruity. Such voluntarily deformed imitations are called caricatures.

It is not known who was the inventor of caricature: but, no doubt, the practice is coeval with the arts of design, which perhaps preceded alphabetic writing itself. The earliest caricature, of which any detailed description remains on record, is that of Parrhasius, representing the Athenian people, of which Pliny gives the following account: “*Pinxit et demon Atheniensium, argumento quoque ingenioso: volebat namque varium, iracundum, injustum, inconstantem, eundem exorabilem, clementem, misericordem, excelsum, gloriosum, humilem, ferocem, fugacemque, et omnia pariter, ostendere.*” From this statement, it is not easy to infer the plan of the picture of Parrhasius: but it probably represented a huge hundred-handed Leviathan, one half of whose limbs were employed in mischievous and the other half in becoming exertions. — Ælian mentions one Calades as having made a caricature of Timotheus the Athenian General, depicting him asleep in his tent, while Fortune, hovering in the air, is taking cities for him in a net. Pauson and Pyreicus also are enumerated among the *rhyparographic* painters, whose freaks some of the Greek republics deemed it right to restrain by law.

law. — These, and many other such anecdotes which might be assembled, have escaped the present author's attention; who appears to be insufficiently conversant with the classical archæology of his topic. His introduction indicates, as his chief source of information, certain manuscripts and pamphlets deposited in the British Museum, which are adapted only to throw light on our domestic antiquities, and to assist in tracing the progress of art at home.

In the first chapter, Mr. Malcolm treats of caricature in general, and attempts to discover the elements of it in those heads of idols from Otaheite and California, which are shewn at the Museum, and which are here engraved: but these ill-fashioned figures, however ludicrously ugly, not being voluntarily distorted by the artist, ought not to be classed as caricatures. They mark the childhood of art, the essayist in sculpture; they may be inspected for hints, but cannot be studied as models. In all nations, the first efforts of the chisel are much alike; the elder idols of the Ægyptians, the tracings in relievo preserved in the caves of Hindustan, and the vulgar works of the Chinese, agree in the like awkward imitation of the most obvious and essential features of the human form. — Four illustrative copper-plates are attached to this chapter, which have the merit of furnishing graphic representations of several objects of curiosity never engraved before.

The second chapter brings home to Great Britain the examination of early art, and discusses the manner in which our Saxon ancestors had embodied their ideas of evil spirits, weather-gods, angels, and saints. The first efforts at personifying the Christian objects of worship seem but continuations of the monstrous forms of their Pagan divinities. In the sixth plate, for instance, a Christ delivering souls from purgatory might as well represent Odin creating the dwarfs from the carcase of the giant Ymer. — Of this chapter again, the graphic illustrations are very copious.

Chapter III. treats of those grotesque carvings in wood and stone which adorn the choirs and cloisters of cathedrals: it also points out and copies many similar ornaments which embellish the margins and intervals of missals and other magnificent manuscripts. From clumsy imitation, art passes every where to capricious combination; and this second stage of art, which is commonly called the *grotesque*, because the antique specimens of it were preserved exclusively in grottoes, prevailed at Rome in the time of Horace, as we may infer from the well-known lines:

“ *Humano capiti cervicem pictor equinam
Jungere si velit,*” &c.

It was also habitually used by Vitruvius for the decoration of borders of rooms. His words are: "*Pro columnis statuuntur calami, pro fastigiis harpaginetuli, striati cum crispis foliis et volutis, supra fastigia earum surgentes ex radicibus, cum volutis cauliculis, teneri plures, habentes in se sine ratione sedentia sigilla, non minus etiam e cauliculis flores dimidiata habentes ex se exeuntia sigilla, alia humanis, alia bestiarum capitibus, similia.*" The mass-book of Richard II., and the private chapel of Augustus, appear to have had similar borders.

Mr. M. next undertakes (in Chap. IV.) an account of comic art among the Italians, after the painters of that nation had attained the skill which was requisite to paint beauty, and condescended to imitate deformity for purposes merely of buffoonery and satire. Here may be remarked in the author a great deficiency of the requisite materials. To Callot, and the French artists who have excelled in caricature, more attention was due: but Mr. M. skips at a bound from the Reformation to the French Revolution, and comprizes his whole history of French art in copying a single caricature of each era.

In the fifth chapter, the author returns to the history of British art, from which it would have been better never to have wandered; and he furnishes some curious illustrations of the period of our civil wars, such as the caricature of Archbishop Laud and his mistresses. *Time carrying away the Pope*, though dated in 1641, might be republished now with equal propriety. The battle of Lent and Shrovetide has allegoric merit, which belongs rather to the poet whose work it illustrates than to the artist: it is dated in 1660. This fifth is a good chapter; and it notices many bibliographical curiosities, such as the *Dunciad* containing the etching of an Ass; Gay's *Fables*, 1727, with plates by Wootton; the *Travels of John Gulliver*, 1731, with plates by Hogarth; and others. A catalogue of caricatures executed in the early part of the present reign, and including the principal of those which respect the American war, terminates this chapter: in which the spirit of the criticism may be thought to announce a native of America. In the list of caricatures respecting the Coalition, that admirable one is omitted which represented Carlo Khan riding on an elephant, resembling Lord North, into the India-house, with Burke for his trumpeter.

The sixth and concluding chapter recapitulates the matter of the preceding sections, and awards the palm to the British over the foreign artists in this department. One fault, however, is prevalent among them: they make great use of labelling, which is an encroachment on the sister-art of verbal satire;

whereas they should talk to the eye only, as if they were addressing those who cannot read. The use of caricature is to facilitate appeals to the illiterate; the likeness serving to designate the individuals in question, and the emblematic or allegoric decorations describing their misconduct. Foreign artists use inscriptions less than ours, and in this respect excel them.

The caricature of single figures, as for instance by Deighton, seldom suffices to form an interesting picture. Some explosion of temper, some awkward display of the ruling passion, or some situation connected with a scandalous anecdote, must be superadded, to excite any sensible triumph in our inherent malignity. Emblematic language is often necessary to complete the visual description of such situations; and hence comic allegory becomes an almost essential part of the study of a caricaturist. It is not enough for the critic to inquire how well the figures indicate the individuals; he is also to ask how well the emblems indicate the situations? In the twenty-second plate of this volume, is a caricature representing Guy Fawkes guided by the Devil with a dark lantern to a cellar under the Parliament-house; and in the sky is seen the eye of Providence, a beam from which illuminates and reveals the barrels of concealed gun-powder. Here, though some use is made of labelling, the story is sufficiently related in visible imagery. This is certainly a perfection: the painter should confine himself to his own province, and not borrow the aid of words.

We are sorry to learn that the death of the meritorious author of this volume has precluded him from correcting its imperfections, and supplying its deficiencies; and that he has left a mother and a widow whose subsistence depended on his exertions. Various periodical publications are making appeals in their behalf to the benevolence of the British people, which we doubt not will be successful. Both as an artist and an author he has long toiled to promote the circulation of the great wheel of public instruction.

ART. IV. *Funeral Orations, in Praise of Military Men*; translated from the Greek of Thucydides, Plato, and Lysias. With Explanatory Notes, and some Account of the Authors. By the Rev. Thomas Broadhurst. 8vo. pp. 300. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THIS is so elegant a volume, both in its external and its internal qualities, that the celebrated orations here again introduced to the English reader may be said to have never before assumed

a dress which was, on the whole, so worthy of them. The translator is evidently a man of respectable literary attainments; and, which is much better, of well-founded and liberal opinions in matters of high historical interest. He writes, and seems to feel, as he ought, with regard to the patriotic and public spirited characters of antiquity. We recommend, therefore, (with a very few and comparatively unimportant exceptions) this whole publication to the perusal of the youthful scholar, as an admirable illustration and accompaniment in the study of his Grecian history. It is at the same time our duty to point out some instances, in which we apprehend that the translator has not been perfectly successful in rendering the exact sense of his original, or has otherwise failed in some point of composition.

The first passage which we have remarked is in the description of the funeral ceremony, prefixed to the oration which Thucydides has put into the mouth of Pericles. It is there said; Καὶ γυναῖκες πάρεσιν, αἱ προσήκουσαι ἐπὶ τον τάφον, ὀλοφύρομεναι: translated by Mr. Broadhurst: 'Women also, who were related to the deceased, were present at the sepulchre, as mourners.' We are aware that this interpretation is sanctioned by the opinion of several critics: but, from the nature of the phrase ἐπὶ τον τάφον, in this place, we should prefer to suppose an allusion to the custom of appointing public mourners to attend the funerals of distinguished persons; a custom for the frequency of which it is unnecessary to refer the scholar to the records of classical or sacred antiquity.

While the phrase, 'buried *from off* the field of battle,' is certainly not a very select version of ἐκ τῶν πολέμων θαπτομένοις, we do not by any means regard the following sentence as a faithful representation of the Greek text: 'to enlarge with propriety upon topics, of the truth of which it is scarcely possible to produce conviction, is not easy:' χαλεπὸν γὰρ τὸ μετριῶς εἰπεῖν ἐν ᾧ μόλις καὶ ἡ δόκησις τῆς ἀληθείας βεβαιῶται. The general meaning of these words we rather imagine to be the following: 'For it is difficult to speak with due moderation on a subject, on which we can scarcely come up to the expectation of our audience concerning the truth.'

The succeeding sentence also fails in satisfying our judgment: 'For the hearer who is well acquainted with them,' (*i. e.* the topics above mentioned,) 'and ever so kindly disposed, may imagine,' &c. ὅ, τε γὰρ ξυνειδώς καὶ εὖνυς ἀκροατῆς τάχ' ἂν τι ἐνδεσέρωσ, κ. τ. λ. The εὖνυς in this sentence does not seem to us to imply a hearer 'ever so kindly disposed' to the speaker, but one who is inspired with such esteem for the subjects of

the oration. — Again. When the orator is praising the fathers of the present generation, in preference even to their ancestors, he says: Κτησάμενοι γὰρ πρὸς ὃις ἐδέξαντο ὅσῃν ἔχομεν ἀρχὴν ἐκ ἀπόνας ἡμῖν τοῖς νῦν προσκατέλιπόν. ‘For, in addition to their hereditary possessions, having obtained all our present dominion, they have bequeathed it, *acquired*, as it was, with the greatest difficulty, to us who survive.’ We should read, ‘*preserved*, as it was,’ &c. &c. An error (according to our apprehension) of more consequence is contained in the sentence below: ‘Inasmuch as the administration is vested in the hands, not of few persons only but of many, it is styled a democracy.’ Καὶ ὄγομα μὲν, διὰ τὸ μὴ ἐς ὀλίγους ἀλλ’ ἐς πλείονας δίκειν, Δημοκρατία κεκληται. To make the English a correct translation, the Greek preposition ἐς should in both cases have been ὑπο, with the genitive after it; and the infinitive active should have been passive. The meaning of the sentence, as it stands in the original, is that the government is administered for the benefit of the whole community, and not that of certain individuals. — Εὐθύς νέοι ὄντες, τὸ ἀνδρείον μετερχονίαι, (alluding to the Lacedæmonians) is rendered (they) ‘make valour a particular object of pursuit with their young men as soon as they become such.’ We should read, ‘partake in manly pursuits, or exercises, as soon as they cease to be children,’ — ‘as youths bear the burthens of men.’ — Δικαιῶντες μὴ ἀφαιρεθῆναι αὐτήν (τοιαύτην, scilicet πόλιν.) ‘Judging it wrong to have it’ (such a city, namely,) ‘wrested from them:’ — rather, ‘Not deeming it well that such a city should be despoiled of these her honours.’ Κοινῶς μαλλον ὠφέλησαν, ἢ ἐκ τῶν ἰδιῶν ἔβλαψαν. ‘The benefits, which they have conferred upon their native land, exceed the injuries it has suffered from them.’ This is correct as far as it goes: but the force of κοινῶς and ἐκ τῶν ἰδιῶν, put so strongly in opposition to each other, (the figure, indeed, in which the oration abounds throughout, and to a faulty excess,) is here wholly lost. ‘As members of the state, they have in common with their fellow-citizens now done it more service, than, as isolated and profligate individuals, they once did it injury.’ This is the paraphrastic sense, as it appears to us, of the passage.

Without prolonging these criticisms, we will only add that our motive in pointing out such seeming blemishes has been to induce an accurate revision of the volume, which thus might be made unexceptionably beneficial to the classical student. For this purpose, we would advise Mr. Broadhurst now, although we admire his abstinence in the first instance, to compare his own with all accessible previous versions; and we doubt not that he will then finally produce a work which, in

the opinion of all critics, will deserve the character that we have even at present hazarded to bestow on it.

We shall conclude by selecting the translation of that portion of the Menexenus which contains the supposed address of the spirits of the departed to their surviving children; subjoining the accompanying notes, and not interrupting our quotation, or weakening our general praise of the author, by any additional objections.

‘ That ye are the children of brave fathers, is sufficiently clear from the present circumstances *. Though we might have preserved our lives at the expence of our honour, yet we nobly chose rather to die †, than plunge both ourselves and our posterity in disgrace; and stain with reproach the names, both of our fathers and of all our progenitors. We think that the man ought not to exist, who can involve his family in disgrace; and that neither gods nor mortals can look with pleasure upon such a one, after he is dead, either upon the earth, or underneath it.

‘ It is your duty, therefore, in compliance with our advice, whatever object besides you strive to attain, to prosecute it with energy; from a conviction, that without this all possessions and pursuits are dishonourable and worthless ‡. For neither do riches, connected with a pusillanimous spirit, confer honour upon their possessor: for such a man is rich for another, and not for himself. Neither do personal grace and strength, combined with cowardice and vice, appear honourable, but dishonourable; rendering the possessor more

‘ * The Goddess of Wisdom, however, informs Telemachus, that this does not always follow; and that few children are equal to their fathers: many, indeed, being worse, and few better:

‘ “ Πανεροι γαρ τοι παῖδες ὅμοιοι πατρί· πλοῦται·
Οἱ πλοῦτος κακίως· πανερός δὲ τι πατὴρ ἀρίστος.”

HOM. Odyss. lib. ii. 276, 277.’

‘ † “ *Pejusque leto flagitium timet.*

Non ille pro caris amicis

Aut patriâ timidus perire.”

HOR. Od. ix. lib. 4.’

‘ “ *Indecorant bene nata culpa.*” — Ib. iv. lib. 4.’

‘ ‡ Magnanimity, energy of mind, and bravery, were considered by the Heathen world, as the principal ingredients in the formation of an exalted character. “ The greatest virtues,” observes Aristotle, “ are those which are the most useful; inasmuch as virtue consists in the power of communicating benefits. Hence men, famed for their justice and valour, are the most honoured: the former, being useful in peace; and the latter, in war.” — ARISTOT. Rhetor. c. 9.

‘ In praise of valour Tyrtæus sings:

‘ “ Ἡ δ’ ἀρετὴ, τοῦ ἀθλοῦ ἐν ἀνθρώποισι ἀρίστη·
Καλλίον τι φέρειν γίγνεται ἀνδρὶ νεῖ.”

TYRTÆI Eleg. I.’
notorious,

notorious, as well as exposing his timidity *. All knowledge, moreover, devoid of rectitude and other virtues, is craft, not wisdom. Wherefore, as an object of invariable attention, endeavour by all means to cherish a perfect willingness, as far as possible to surpass in celebrity both us, and those who lived before us †. Otherwise rest assured, that if we exceed you in valour, we shall still, notwithstanding our pre-eminence, be involved in your disgrace ; but our inferiority, if we should be surpassed by you, will be a happy event to us. In all probability, however, we shall be surpassed by you, and you will rank above us, if you call to your aid the glory of your ancestors; neither abusing it, nor employing it uselessly ; from a persuasion, that to a man, who has any sense of his own dignity, nothing can be more disgraceful, than to make a display of honours not properly his own, but derived from the renown of his forefathers ‡. For the glory of parents is an excellent, and an honourable treasure to their children § ; but to enjoy from them a store of riches and distinctions, and not to transfer it to descendants, when we have neither possessions nor dignities, peculiarly our own, to bequeath to them, is base and unmanly.

‘ Having zealously pursued these objects, whenever the fate, to which you are destined, may convey you to us ||, you will come to us, as friends to friends ; but if you have neglected them, and have brought upon yourselves disgrace, you will be received by none of us with kindness.¶’

ART.

‘ * Hector reproaches Paris with being handsome, but destitute of bodily strength and mental energy :

“ Καλον

‘ Εἶδος ἐπ’· ἀλλ’ ἐκ ἑς βίη φέρειν, ὡς τις ἀλχη.”

HOM. II. lib. iii. l. 44.’

‘ † Aristotle observes, that “ it is the tendency of an honourable pedigree to render the person possessed of it still more ambitious of renown ; for that it is natural, wherever a stock of any kind exists, to be desirous of adding to it.” — Rhetor. lib. ii. c. 12.’

‘ ‡ “ *Quis enim generosum dixerit hunc, qui Indignus genere, et præclaro nomine tantum Insignis ?*”

JUV. Sat. viii. 30.’

‘ “ *Ut miremur te, non tua, primum aliquid da, Quod possim titulis incidere præter honores.*”

Ibid.’

‘ § “ *Dos est magna parentium Virtus.*”

HOR. Od. xxiv. lib. 3.’

‘ || “ ——— Οὐ γὰρ πῶς καταδυσόμεθ’, ἀχρημεῖς περ, Εἰς Αἶδαο δόμους, πρὶν μορσιμῶν ἡμᾶς ἐπιλθῆ.”

Odyss. x. 174.’

‘ ¶ The same conscioussness was ascribed by the Heathens to the dead in the regions below, as they possessed while living. This appears from various passages in the Greek and Roman writers. In the interview which took place between Ulysses and his departed friends

ART. V. *A Visit to Paris in 1814* ; being a Review of the Moral, Political, Intellectual, and Social Condition of the French Capital. By John Scott, Editor of the Champion, a weekly Political and Literary Journal. 8vo. pp. 409. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

“ Scire tuum nihil est, nisi te scire hoc sciat alter.”

KNOWLEDGE, especially travelled knowlege, pants to communicate itself : so that rambling, when accompanied by any degree of talent, generally brings the pen into activity ; and, either from vanity or a real desire of adding to the stock of general information, the inquisitiveness of those who stay at home is gratified by means of the curiosity of those who go abroad. Few, however, of those who travel to see and hear are properly qualified to see and hear for the public : rare endowments being necessary for catching, delineating, and contrasting the habits and manners of foreign nations, so as to present a correct review of their ‘ moral, political, intellectual, and social condition.’ To a knowlege of the nature of man, and of the state of society in his own country, the traveller must add a quick conception of characteristic traits, a happy knack of delineating and comparing, and the power of deducing those results which bring the scattered rays to a focus and produce a sort of brilliant effect. When a rambler of this description visits places which have been often visited before, he still has something to tell us that is worth hearing ; and, though his book may not awaken that lively curiosity which is excited by the publication of those Americans who were sent to explore the sources of the Missouri, because he has no unexplored region to develop, he has still something to describe of which we require

friends Agamemnon and Achilles, in the infernal regions, the latter express the greatest eagerness to be informed of what took place after their deaths in the world above ; and rejoice, or grieve at what is told them, in the same manner as they would have done at being made acquainted with similar events during their lives. Achilles is delighted to be informed of the valour of his son Neoptolemus :

‘ “ Γεγονυ, ὁ οἱ υἱὸν ἔφην ἀειδόμενον εἶναι.”

HOM. Odyss. l. xi. 539.

‘ The shades, impelled by the greatest curiosity, eagerly crowd around Æneas also, in the regions of Tartarus :

‘ “ *Circumstant animæ dextrâ levâque frequentes ;
Nec vidisse semel satis est : juvat usque morari ;
Et conferre gradum, et veniendi discere causas.*”

Æneid. vi. 486.
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the most accurate description. He travels over beaten ground indeed, yet it may not hitherto have been observed with sufficient accuracy.

It is worth while, then, to see how the present reflecting reviewer of the condition of the French, in their various relations, agrees with or differs from those who have preceded him. Mr. Scott tells us that his object has been 'to connect the separate sources of interest more closely than has yet been done, so that each object in Paris may bear on the mind with a force concentrated from all of them that are in any wise applicable to itself;' and hence, while 'the most striking buildings of Paris are alluded to in a way sufficient to convey a notion of their character and appearance, his chief attention has certainly been directed to them as illustrations of manners and memoranda of events.' In this view of them, Mr. Scott's remarks deserve the notice of us Englishmen; and perhaps even the French would know themselves a little better than they seem to do, if they would seriously observe the picture which he has drawn of them. Some of his remarks they may probably be disposed to controvert: but his reflections are calculated to improve their moral and political condition, and have an unquestionable value.

No sooner is Mr. Scott landed at Dieppe, than he is attracted by the several characters which present themselves, and comments on the striking difference between a French and an English crowd. Rapidly passing through Normandy, he describes the appearance of the country-people, sketches a French Diligence, compares this clumsy machine with our well appointed stage-coaches, and pays a compliment to the ingenuity of the French postilions: who, by a happy adroitness in the application of packthread and their garters, if necessary, refit the ropes with which the horses are rather awkwardly rigged than harnessed, without bringing the machine, as Jack would say, *to an anchor*. On the state of the roads, and the general aspect of the country, the author's observations are in unison with those of most other travellers. As he approaches Paris, the mingled feelings which the view of a great city, combined with the recollection of the tremendous and interesting events of which it has been the recent theatre, at once crowd into his mind; and his display of its character forms no bad introduction to the following exhibition:

'Paris possesses a moral and historical interest in the greatest degree: but it is also rich in what is calculated to strike the eye by picturesque and grand effect; to satisfy the sensualist, by supplying various and artful enjoyment; to delight the gay, by dispensing a profusion of captivating pleasures; to gratify the tasteful,

by a combination of skill, elegance, and feeling ; to suggest reflection, and pleasingly employ research, by *effigying* the events of a far distant date, and picturing manners that have long been obsolete ; to administer to the wants of the scholar, by supplying vast collected stores of all the materials of human knowledge ; and, in fine, to afford an *unmatchable* treat to the student of mankind, by discovering and even displaying to immediate observation, all that can give a thorough insight into character and condition.

‘ This last circumstance forms the most extraordinary peculiarity of Paris. Compared with the cities of most other countries, it is like a glass bee-hive compared with those that are made of straw. You see, without trouble, into all its hoards ; — all its creatures perform all their operations, full in the face of all : what others consign to secrecy and silence, they throw open to daylight, and surround with the buzzing of fluttering swarms. Of the French, or, at least, of the French of the capital, it may be said, that the essence of their existence is *a consciousness of being observed*. People, in general, permit this only to take its place with various motives and feelings that check each other, and produce a mixed conduct, — in which a person lives a little for his forefathers, a little for himself, a little for his family, a little for his friends, a little for the public, and a little for posterity. But the Parisians, (for to them I confine my remarks, as they are the only specimen of the nation with which I am acquainted,) live only for the bustle and notice of present society. Hence it is, that they have not a notion of retirement, even where they dress and sleep, but, at the expence of much convenience, receive company in their bed-rooms, which are furnished accordingly : hence the cleverest individuals are not happy, unless they mingle with the silliest in coteries : hence Paris is full of literary societies, libraries, institutes, museums, &c. : hence every thing choice that it possesses is made a common exhibition ; and the multitude are invited to examine that which philosophers only can understand, and admire that the beauties of which can be only appreciated by cultivated intellect, guided by refined taste.’

It will be found that this visitor, notwithstanding his home-predilections, is disposed on all occasions to do justice to those objects which are the pride of the French ; and, if he knows how to appreciate the comforts of London, he does not undervalue the external grandeur of Paris :

‘ I must,’ says he, ‘ pronounce Paris to be a most magnificent place. The views which it presents are of the most touching and grand kind ; its appearances are interesting beyond any thing I could before have fancied. The chief reason of this is, that *character* is indicated by almost every surface. A system of things, calculated, with reference to the whole, to produce the greatest aggregate amount of convenience and completeness of every kind, tames down and restrains the manifestations of individual peculiarities. This prevails much more in England than in France, — and more in London than in Paris. The consequence is, that, in the English capital,
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your ideas and feelings are less frequently and forcibly excited than in the French.'

Never, perhaps, was the Boulevard, or grand promenade which is the most striking feature of the French capital, better described and contrasted with our own metropolis.

'The Boulevard goes round Paris, and was originally its boundary, but the extension of the city has, in many places, rendered it central, and it is so in the most fashionable and frequented quarters, namely, those nearest the palaces and the theatres. It is, in fact, now, a superb street of great breadth, lined on each side with trees, between which and the houses, gravelled walks have been made for the foot-passengers. The general effect here is very fine. The eye cannot reach to any termination of the Boulevard; and in the distance, the trees, according to the laws of perspective, appear to unite their branches in an arch, overshadowing with their foliage the hurrying groupes of men, and women, and horses, and carts, and carriages, that are perpetually streaming to and fro beneath. By moonlight this forms a very grand picture, and suggests a confession, that London has nothing so fine in this way.

'The best streets of the English metropolis owe their beauty, in our estimation, to their possessing those qualities that raise ideas of opulence, comfort, reasonableness, and general utility: the Parisian Boulevard is interesting in strong contrasts, picturesque in inconsistencies, grand in size, and overpowering through animation. The houses rise to twice the height of ours; they are of stone, and their architecture is generally elaborate. There appear here no signs of building rows by contract with the bricklayers, nor any necessity for prescribing by a law, what shall be the thickness of a party-wall. Turn your eyes whichever way you will, they are met by broad fronts, decorated with frieses, cornices, pillars, pilasters, and balconies, and rising to a height that to a stranger seems stupendous. The chimneys, as the end of a mass of buildings presents itself, seem clustered turrets and battlements. The streets that open from the Boulevard appear to dart into a peopled and swarming confusion and uncertainty; they promise, as it were, to lead to something which cannot be foretold from their entrance, instead of being, what all the principal streets are in London, self-intimators that they are lines of receptacles for trade and property, and regular domestic life. This character of the French streets arises from their narrowness, as contrasted with the height of the massive houses on each side, and other assemblages together of features, which, in England, are seldom or never seen near each other. Thus, a grand gateway would prepare the English visitor for the mansion of a family of rank, were it not that the court to which it leads is filled with litter and dirt, that the doors are open and filthy, and the persons who appear around them, ill-dressed and in every way unsuitable. Has the house, then, been deserted by its original magnificence, and fallen, in a ruined state, into the possession of the needy, who herd in its dilapidated rooms? No, not so exactly; for a carriage waits to receive the inmate of the first floor, — a Marquis in an old coat, silk stockings,
and

and a cross ;—a cabriolet (or one horse chaise) is in attendance for the occupier of the second, — a Colonel in a coloured waistcoat and a regimental coat ; — from the third, a person walks down in non-descript attire, which, however, indicates him to belong mostly to the military class, although, perhaps, at that moment, neither his profession nor his rank could be very easily defined ; — a milliner, with a band-box, trips from the fourth, — and some miserable dependant on the chances of the day descends from the fifth.'

The superb *coup d'œil* of the *Place Louis Quinze*, the garden of the Tuilleries, the *Champs Elysée*, the *Palais Bourbon*, the interesting appearance of Paris from the Quays, the line of the Tuilleries and the Louvre, the *Palais des Arts*, the Mint, the Pantheon, *Notre Dame*, the *Palais Royal*, the streets, shops, &c. are passed before us in this gentlemen's literary shew-box : but while he exhibits he also comments, so that the mind and the moral sense are brought into activity with the eye, and every circumstance is rendered explanatory of the character of the Parisians. We transcribe a brief passage descriptive of the *Palais Royal*, the place of fashionable resort in Paris, because it shews us at once the vortex of frivolity and dissipation in which the inhabitants of this city are whirled :

' The climate of France, and the character of the French, conspire to cause them to seek their pleasures out of doors. Home is the only place they neglect ; it is a place only for their necessities ; they must sleep there, — and the tradesmen must transact their business there : a bed, a table, and a few chairs are therefore wanted, and a small room or two, uncarpeted and bare, must be hired. I speak, of course, of the middle and inferior classes. But all that is inspiring and comfortable, they seek out of doors, — and all that they pride themselves in being able to procure, is in the shape of decoration and amusement.

' The Palais Royal has grown to be what it is, out of these habits and dispositions, and now presents the most characteristic feature of Paris : — it is dissolute, gay, wretched, elegant, paltry, busy, and idle : — it suggests recollections of atrocity, and supplies sights of fascination : — it displays virtue and vice living on easy terms, and in immediate neighbourhood with each other. Excitements, indulgencies, and privations, — art and vulgarity, — science and ignorance, — artful conspiracies, and careless debaucheries, — all mingle here, forming an atmosphere of various exhalations, a whirl of the most lively images, a stimulating melange of what is most heating, intoxicating, and subduing.'

A long chapter is appropriated to the subject of French Manners, the looseness of which is attributed to ' a false state of thinking, — a state favourable to quick, lively, and strenuous action, — calculated to make a nation full of exhibitions, and amusements, and enterprises, — but deficient in solid establishments, in fixed monuments of sound principle, in the inheritances that
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are worth bequeathing, in the productions that speak to "all time," and that address the future more impressively than the present.'

' They are a clever people, they are an active people, they are a gay people; — but they are not deep or sound thinkers; they do not feel virtuously, or permanently, or kindly, — they have no native relish for the charms of nature, — the shallow sophistications and cold forms of artificial systems are their favorites; — they can see nothing but simple facts, — they cannot detect causes, consequences, and connections, — and (what is worst of all) their actions are not indexes to their hearts.'

It falls within the province of a writer whose favourite and principal design is to discuss and illustrate national character and manners, to bestow some attention on the French palaces and monuments, with a reference to that national character; and this part of Mr. Scott's task he has executed much to our satisfaction. A British monarch derives power, consequence, and glory, not from the splendour or gaudiness of the regal palaces, but from the opulence and energies of the people. It is from her Bank, her Exchange, her Docks, her Warehouses, &c. and not from the decorations of drawing-rooms, that Great Britain has obtained her unequalled opulence and power, by which she has been able to subsidize Europe and to dictate to the world. Let us see in what way Mr. S. attacks the vanity of the French, and encourages the honest pride of John Bull:

' It so happens, that public opinion in France has never been directed to a proper understanding of the constituents of national glory. It is the universal remark of the French, that the King of England has no palaces to compare with those that belong to the sovereigns of France. The fact must be admitted, but whether it implies inferiority on our part, in respect of the most valuable qualities of public character, may be judged even from the short account I have given.

' The great works of architecture are noble achievements, when they spring from the taste, and spirit, and opulence of the public body; — when they form part of a consistent system of national comforts, elegance, confidence, wealth, and all that goes to form national strength. But there may be great danger in an admiration of these splendid decorations, as trophies of national superiority, if it be not guided by a shrewd regard to their source.

' I apprehend that France owes her public monuments to circumstances that have been productive to her of disgrace and detriment, — and that no popular disposition can be more fatal to popular virtue, and more to be deprecated by patriotism, than the unqualified pride which she has ever shewn in these superb effects of the power and profligacy of her rulers. Perhaps at this moment it may be deemed, that there are good reasons for endeavouring to oppose the seduction

which has attempted to reconcile the English to fêtes that “put one in mind of those at Versailles,” — to military trappings and danglings crowding the royal levee rooms, — and to princely buildings that are as self-willed and extravagant, though not so elegant, as those that have arisen from the indisputable mandates of a Louis or a Napoleon.

‘The public of England have been accustomed to look to themselves, — to their own spirit and opinion, — for their own comforts, luxuries, and ornaments. Little, or nothing, is performed by the English executive government, but the details of state business, — and it seems safest to entrust it with no power, and to center in it no expectations, beyond this. It is at once finer as a spectacle, and more advantageous with reference to the happiness and respectability of the community, that the possessions and decorations of the public should grow, in silence and certainty, out of the public bosom, — rich in rights, in sentiments, and means, — than that they should come down with a sudden clatter and violent shock, from the hands of a dispensing despotism. When the people originate what they enjoy, it is but reasonable to conclude that the people’s welfare will be consulted, — but in France it is directly the reverse. The French people have been accustomed to look to themselves for nothing; their rulers have given them every thing of which they boast. It is to Henry the Fourth, or Louis the Fourteenth, or Buonaparte, that Paris owes this, and that, and the other. The consequence is, that the interests of the people have been promoted, only just so far as they have happened to chime in with the selfish and tyrannical feelings of their governments. Thus, they have never been habituated to contemplate their own power: they have been familiarized to regard themselves as having few or no resources existing independently of their rulers.

‘The monuments of England are the acts of her public bodies, in which concentrate those noble impulses, that direct the national means and spirit to fine objects of philanthropy or glory, — first at the time in the estimation and view of the world. Her stupendous public subscriptions in behalf of the distressed of all nations, — her associations in behalf of systems of education, — her efforts to procure the abolition of abuses and the diffusion of blessings, are surely as noble examples of her principles, her taste, and her might, as palaces and gardens that have been built and laid out for a King’s mistresses, at his subjects’ expence.’

Speaking again of the public feeling of the French, Mr. Scott makes a very unpromising statement:

‘From all I have said of the French character and condition, it will be seen that I have the worst idea of their social system, as it is at present constituted. It seems to me to be without foundation or compactness. — There are no generally recognized principles in the public mind, — there are no great bodies to give gravity, and steadiness, and impetus to the state, — there are no respected names in France to lead opinion, to collect the national strength under legitimate banners in behalf of honourable purposes.’

Bonaparte

Bonaparte is considered by this visitor as having rather deteriorated than improved the moral character of the French people ; and Mr. S. thinks that, by re-establishing the government of the Bourbons, good may arise to France.

The ladies of Paris will not feel obliged to Mr. Scott for the picture which he has drawn of them : but we fear that it is too correct. We shall not attempt even an abstract of it ; though we shall venture to copy a part which respects the condition of the married female, and her domestic *sanctum sanctorum* called the Boudoir :

‘ The system of married life in France is one by which the lady enjoys a sort of artificial authority and influence, raising her to appearance much above the claims of her sex and relationship, but existing at the expence of that cordial communication and heartfelt disinterested deference, which distinguish unions founded on a more judicious basis than that which I have been describing. She is installed in various prerogatives that look flattering and desirable, but they are chiefly favourable to the discharge of functions from which a true respect for her sex, cherished by the men, would entirely preserve her, and the enjoyment of gratifications which a proper self-respect on her own part would prohibit her from partaking.

‘ The chief emblem and representation of this condition of married women is the Boudoir. It is a temple of separation and luxury. It belongs to the wife exclusively ; the husband has neither property in it, nor power over it. If she were suspected of having a lover concealed within its mysterious enclosure, that enclosure, nevertheless, must not be violated. What I mean is, that such is the rule of good manners in France, and the man who disregards it is esteemed a brute, — an object of the general dislike and disgust of both sexes. The Boudoir is the apartment, as I have before observed, that is most commonly complete in its elegance. The nursery for the children, in the houses of families of rank, contrary to the custom in England, is neglected, and crammed into some inconvenient corner ; but the Boudoir for the mother is rich in couches, in statues, in paintings, and flowers. It is a retreat in which Venus might be happy to recline, and is, in every respect, calculated to inspire the sentiments which belong to the devotion in which that goddess delights.’

We know not what authority Mr. S. has for asserting that ‘ the French have not brought a single picture from Italy which they have not cruelly and brutally injured :’ but, if this fact be established, the value of the collection made at the Louvre, by the plunderers of Europe, as a school of the arts, is in a great measure destroyed ; and, if the stolen pictures should be sent back by the conquerors of Paris to their original stations, they will scarcely be worth the trouble.

Our readers must confess that we have made sufficient extracts from Mr. Scott's work to enable them to appreciate his merit as an observer and a writer; and we must now bid him farewell: but not without observing that he has taken more pains to mature his reflections than his style. If he writes with force, he too often indulges in the use of words for which he can produce no authority, as '*disconcertion*,'—'*elastically*,'—'*dashing colonade*,'—'*abidance*,'—'*unmatchable*,' &c. He uses also the gallicism of '*one* thinks,' and '*one* sees,' &c.; and at p. 46. speaks of a good '*which cannot be long of appearing*.' To conclude: if this volume will not serve as a guide to all the curiosities of Paris, it is replete with judicious remarks; and if the author's estimate of the French character be on the whole unfavourable, we hope that it may operate as a salutary lesson of reproof, especially since he admits that the capacities of the French nation are very great. To supply any deficiencies of detail, he has subjoined an Appendix, compiled from the history of Paris by Le Grand and Landon, in which many useful notices are inserted; and towards the end is an original description of the catacombs, which extend under a great part of Paris, and contain the remains of more than three millions of human beings.

ART. VI. *The Rape of Proserpine*; with other Poems, from Claudian; translated into English Verse. With a Prefatory Discourse, and Occasional Notes. By Jacob George Strutt. 8vo. pp. 220. 8s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

A VERY moderate preface introduces this volume, in which Mr. Strutt presents us with some translations from Milton's Latin poem *De Quinto Novembris*, by way of exhibiting parallel passages to translations from Claudian's poem of Rufinus; one of which contains the following lines:

'This island, blest with wealth and festive peace
Satan observ'd, deck'd with *Cerean* spoils.'

He also expresses a wish to direct the attention of the public into certain '*neglected channels of literature*,' by which, if we rightly understand him, he alludes to the fables of classical antiquity. This notion of the neglect of particular writings frequently seizes on the mind of a young candidate for literary fame; and, fancying that his first acquaintance with a classical poet, or prose-author, has anticipated that of most of his readers, he sallies forth on the generous expedition of rescuing some antique worthy from oblivion, or with the still more noble view of giving a new tone to the taste of his country. Thus

it was that, a few years ago, we were favoured with some remarks on Lucretius, benevolently purposing to revive that obsolete Roman for the benefit of scholars in the present æra. As, however, that æra has emphatically been called the *New Æra*, we do not see why these specimens of the *Modern Antique* should not harmonize very happily with it; and therefore we shall be contented to rank Mr. Strutt among the *Restorers* of the day, as far as the merit of his design extends.

Of the execution of that design, we are sorry not to be able to speak favourably. Claudian, whose character as a poet materially depends on his versification (of which he assuredly affords many very splendid examples) being relished and appreciated by a translator, requires in that translator the most exact knowledge of the principles of Latin poetry; and when, in almost every page of a version, we meet with either an injudicious usage of proper names, or a direct breach of the rules of quantity in their accentuation, we cannot hesitate to pronounce that such a “doing into English” is inadequate to the object for which it was undertaken.

We shall make a few citations to evince the justice of our remarks.

- ‘ When tuneful Orphëus in silent grief.’
- ‘ Redden’d the Nile — Pholœ’s azure wave.’
- ‘ Or on Tanâis waste and frozen shore.’
- ‘ The fluctuating deep Nerëus calm.’
- ‘ Escaped — perhaps dark Briarëus stole.’
- ‘ Such upon Ida’s rocks Simōis’ stream.’

————— ‘ If former times
Had such a monster seen, Theseus had fled
From Pirithōus — and Pylades *forsook*
Orestes.’ —————

We have somewhere read that Pope, whose melodious versification might have afforded him better examples of music than the following,

“ The freezing Tanâis through a waste of snows,”
was singularly well pleased with this line: — but we hope that Mr. Strutt has not an equal predilection for that which is subjoined :

- ‘ Beyond Tanâis’ shore, in Scythia’s clime,’ &c.

We turned to the splendid passage in the poem on Rufinus, beginning “ *Sepè mihi dubiam,*” &c. — Alas! we never saw the life so visibly taken out of any thing as it is from the verses in question! Who, indeed, that could appreciate the effect of condensed and elegant expression, would have rendered this

noble common-place of antiquity into feeble blank verse? — Claudian, of all Latin poets, demands rhyme in an English translation, — and rhyme of a highly polished description. The “Phoenix” is presented to us in his proper dress: but all his *fire* is extinguished; and we cannot rake in the ashes for the lurking principle of vitality.

‘When *Phæton*’s corse on earth disfigured lay’ is one of the lines that disfigure the “Phoenix.” That beautiful little poem, “The Old Man of Verona,” is equally ill rendered. In short, we are compelled, however reluctantly, to address the present author in the words of Dryden, *mutatis mutandis*, “Cousin Swift! you will *never* be a poet.”

ART. VII. *An Essay on Human Consciousness*; containing an Original View of the Operations of Mind, Sensual and Intellectual. By John Fearn. 4to. pp. 272. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

“IT is not worth while to be concerned what he says or thinks, who says or thinks *only* as he is directed by another.” Most undoubtedly it is not; and so cordially do we approve the author’s selection of the above motto from Locke, that we only wish that he had taken this great man’s example for his model in another respect; we mean in the *general* clearness and precision of his language. Mr. Fearn’s expressions fall so very short of his ideas in this important point, that we are often highly pleased with his originality in thinking, and vexed by his confusion or awkwardness in writing, at the same moment. Many passages are quite unintelligible, and we have no doubt solely from this cause: but enough remains that can be clearly understood to establish, we think, the reputation of the author, who seems a self-taught metaphysician, even among this fastidious class of readers.

We certainly never encountered a hardier hypothesis than the principal and pervading system of the volume. — Having with Clarke and Price, and other, perhaps still greater, metaphysical authorities, disjoined the idea of non-extension from the idea of immateriality in mind, Mr. Fearn boldly advances in his argument, and contends for the necessary consequence of figure flowing from extension; and, to leave no part of his reasonings incomplete, he assigns the *precise* figure of his extended thinking substance, and characterizes mind as a ‘*flexible spherule*.’ Here, many of our readers will be disposed to excuse us from farther inquiry into this ‘*Essay on Consciousness*’: but we assure them that, however they may revolt from or ridicule such an hypothesis, of which we certainly are not

not about to undertake either the defence or the exposition, the detached facts in which the volume abounds are very curious; and we really think that they throw *some* new light on that most interesting subject, the action and re-action of mind and body on each other. If in some passages, and in the general *aspect* indeed of these lucubrations, the materialist may imagine that he has derived support from this new authority, in others, and in the real design, rightly understood, the immaterialist (if he *can* but part with his non-extension) obtains steady and important aid from Mr. Fearn. His object, in a word, is 'to shew that mind operates by extension distinct from brain; and on the other hand that brain *cannot* be the agent of thought.' Here, then, between Materialism properly so called, and Immaterialism as usually maintained, Mr. Fearn takes his station:

——— “ *Qualiter undas*

Qui secat, et geminum gracilis mare separat isthmus.”

In the early chapters, he discusses the origin of our knowlege; and, led on through what we must in this portion of the inquiry intitle “The Labyrinth of Locke,” he arrives at the edge of that dizzy flood in which the two constituent parts of our nature encounter, and, “shooting the gulph” with Helvetius, resolves *every thing* into FEELING. This is all that we can at present say of the preliminary metaphysics of Mr. Fearn. He is evidently one of those *quinqueviri* who are more than *occasioned*, who are almost *created*, by the *five senses*; and Professor Stewart meets with his decorous and respectful reprehension, for vindicating the rights of reason in the formation of *some* of our original notions. Still, in no case does the present author *intend*, whatever he may unconsciously do, to furnish scepticism with weapons, or to confuse the little light which we possess on these attractive and yet repulsive subjects; — attracting us, we mean, by our *general* thirst for all knowlege, but especially that of ourselves, by our “longing after immortality;” — and yet repelling us at every *particular* approach, when we have advanced but a few steps beyond the vast region of darkness and ignorance: so that it would seem our destiny to feed a constantly renewed curiosity on a series of similar disappointments. *Tantalus ut fama est*, &c. &c.: but, not to have recourse to heathen illustration, may we not rather turn to Christian argument, and in the well applied quotation of Locke conclude that this very dissatisfaction works together with other partial evil for our aggregate good; leading us to rest our hope where, as there is “*fulness of joy, and pleasure for evermore,*” the enlargement of our knowlege *must* form one ingredient in our happiness?

We have said enough, perhaps, to excite the attention of the philosophical reader, and it is obvious that no other *will* attend, to the work of Mr. Fearn: but it displays a higher, clearer, and loftier style at the conclusion of the volume, of which we cannot refrain from offering a specimen; and we prefer it to an extract from that portion of the essay which is employed on the developement of the main argument, because the author is extremely concise in discussing a variety of important questions, and we should find it difficult, if not impossible, to present the chain of his reasoning unbroken in any limited quotation. We have been unable to avoid, indeed, in the passage which we have chosen, some reference to the curious hypothesis before indicated: but, on the whole, the bearing of that passage is as obvious as it is praiseworthy:

‘ Man’s own nature, “ his frame, his duty, and his expectations,” form, doubtless, the most noble subject of contemplation; and, though men who are continually engaged in active pursuits, may be hurried along without much attention to it, I cannot imagine how any one who enjoys occasional leisure can exist without turning his thoughts to enquire how his mind operates, and what is possibly indicated in his feelings, and actions.

‘ The pursuit of Natural Knowledge of every kind is a laudable curiosity, and fascinating, even in those minute and trivial departments wherein we can scarce keep sight of immediate utility. How much more attracting ought to be the investigation of the phenomena of consciousness: and, how strange it so frequently happens, with those, even, who have a turn for inquiry, that of all the insects that creep, man thinks last of questioning how he, himself, moves; and how actuated. I confess it has appeared to me so much more nobly interesting, and elevated, than the generality of pursuits, that no disadvantage has been able to deter me from following it.

‘ To think, and to offer our thoughts, I am aware, are very different things and may have opposite merits. In offering mine, I have been actuated, solely, by a hope that they may operate beneficially in calling attention to considerations, which I believe are hitherto unnoticed in the processes of *consciousness*.

‘ My desired object in putting forth the *spherule hypothesis* is in the result to promote good, and prevent evil, by its feeble suffrage, in favour of opinions which tend to make men happier here, and should make them deserve happiness hereafter, under the consideration that they have *minds* adapted to *permanent existence*, and a power of *volition*, both which doubtless fit them for, and render them, *accountable* beings.

‘ In this view, we all know that our hope depends on discharging our *duties*, which are toward *God*, and our *neighbour*.

‘ Throughout it has been my first concern, that in seeking truth I should neither fail myself, nor mislead any other to fail, in either of these duties; and, nothing would sooner give me reason to suspect a dereliction of understanding than a discovery that my opinions ran hostile to the prevalent good in creation.

‘ If

‘ If the wholesome mixture of *physical evil*, which *appears* to fall *partially* ; or, in *moral agency*, if the short triumphs of crimes, unscrutinized and unpunished, could tempt us to the folly of doubting Providence, the most virtuous, judging from undeserved sufferings, might be most wicked in their judging. But our views of the grand scheme of Nature, however inadequate, can never be limited by a horizon so contracted.

‘ For my own part, in every physical, and moral, *seeming* impropriety, I perceive nothing but a stronger indication, or assurance, conjoint with Revelation, that we are here in a state of *trial* ; and shall have our deserts. And, if these deserts were awarded on the spot, I should be in *mere reason* inclined to take it as an indication, that our existence would *cease with our organic* structure.

‘ Contrary to this sad conclusion, and impressed with a persuasion that I was made essentially capable of existence hereafter, in a state of greater intelligence, perfection, and happiness, I look up to the expanse of Heaven, as a glorious temple ; and, whilst my heart beats, can never want an altar whereon to place the daily offering of gratitude.

‘ I should not presume to obtrude such sentiments as these upon the reader, who, probably, is gifted to teach me, by both precept and example, but that it stands directly in my subject : and, in such a case, the cool, and otherwise decorous language of philosophy, would fail to convey an avowal of belief, which I cannot properly contemplate without a glow of peculiar and ineffable sensation.

‘ I do not pretend that such impressions, though always known, have always operated to the extent that they ought. The mean vice, hypocrisy, is certainly far from me ; and I would not for a moment be mistaken as pretending to observe a sanctity *not usual*, nor often sincere, in the ordinary walks of *miscellaneous* life. Through a chequered and tempted lot, all that I have been able to preserve is *hope* in Divine Mercy, so that my pillow grants me *sweet* repose, and my waking hours yield the precious reflection that I have “not sworn,” nor schemed, to deceive my neighbour.

‘ But, if my individual comparative imperfection were greater than self-love may suffer me to perceive, still this could not in the least lessen the acknowledgment which I, prostrate, offer to the great Giver of life. And, coming from an equal in infirmity, it should but the more impress other weak mortals, like myself, and stimulate them to an undeviating regard of that *accountableness* which, I have endeavoured to shew, must be the end of man’s existence here ; and, for which, this inquiry labours to prove, *his thinking principle is naturally adapted*.

‘ In the gross of human kind, *few* err from deliberately doubting a superior power, but most do so, rather, from doubts cast upon their own *future existence* and its *consequences* : owing to which, they act for the present time in *defiance* of justice. This they will, perhaps, be less given to do if they shall arrive at a *physical* assurance that they *must be* permanent and *accountable* ; because crimes are prevented not so much by *extent* of *possible* punishment, as by *unquestioned conviction* of its *certainly*.

‘ To conclude, with regard to the *question of fact*, (whatever *inference*, or *hypothesis*, may be derived from this fact,) I have, from the beginning, purposed to show that the *human mind governs* affections in *strictly a similar order* to the *government of flexures* in a *flexible sphere* endowed with a *power of distension*. And, with humble deference, I think it appears to be so.’

After such a specimen of the author’s sentiments, and powers of thinking, as well as of expressing those thoughts, (λογος ἐνδιαθετος και λογος προφορικος,) we shall not dwell on the inaccuracies exhibited in the earlier portion of his work: but, admonishing him, especially, to revise his account of Consciousness as contradistinguished from Memory, we shall bid him Adieu, with respect.

ART. VIII. *Tales of the Dead*; principally translated from the French. 8vo. 9s. Boards. White and Cochrane.

IN a concise and sensible advertisement, we are informed that the first four tales in this collection, and the last, are imitated from a small French work in two duodecimo volumes, intitled, “*Fantasmagoriana; ou Recueil d’Histoires d’Apparitions, de Spectres, Revenans, Fantômes, &c. Traduit de l’Allemand, par un Amateur*: Paris, 1812.” The fifth tale is founded on an incident related to the translator by a female friend of deserved literary celebrity, as having actually occurred in this country. It is a fragment of very considerable interest to the lovers of the miraculous; a species of readers which can never be wholly extinct, howmuchsoever they may have been *surfeited* out of their flourishing state of existence, by the inordinate supply of their favourite food which (as the present author observes) was administered to them between the days of “*The Castle of Otranto*” and those of “*The Confessional of the Black Penitents*.”

No preliminary dissertation on the different sorts of spirits, whether black or white, whether blue or gray, must here be expected from us, as we have neither limits nor leisure to frighten our readers or ourselves with such high and strange lucubrations. We must refer them, with the French editor of this work, (whose preface the English imitator translates,) to Dom Calmet, and the Abbé Lenglet-Dufresnoy; in whose ample list of ghostly authors, the most sanguine or sanguinary of spectre-mongers will find enough and more than enough to satisfy him. * If, however, he should not yet cry out, “Hold,

* Our own pages (in the Review of Mrs. Grant on the Highland Superstitions, December 1811,) are quoted for information on this subject by the French editor.

enough!" we would lead him still farther on, if like Hamlet he will follow us at an awful distance, to Swedenborg and St. Martin; to Wagener and to Jung, the respective authors of "The Spectres," (*Die Gespenster Kurze Erzählungen aus dem Reiche der Wahrheit*, — a title that itself sounds very like the powerful invocation of a spirit, —) and of "The Theory on Phantasmatology:" authors who put quite out of joint the noses of Scott on Apparitions, and Walter Scott, and Michael Scott himself, and throw poor King James and his *Dæmonology*, and Glanville's *Witches*, and Wanley's *Wonders*, and the *Wonderful Magazine*, entirely into the back ground.

The first of these tales is called 'The Family Portraits.' The name instantly suggests a boundless association of horrors to the vivid imagination of the ghost-seer; and the motto from "the Winter's Tale" is well selected:

"No longer shall you gaze on't — lest your fancy
May think anon it moves. —
The fixure of her eye *has* motion in't!"

We shall say no more. It is our object (a legitimate object on such an occasion as the introduction of a ghost-story, but sadly misplaced, though very fashionable, in the poetical tales of the day,) to excite and not to gratify curiosity. Besides, we feel a sort of involuntary shudder, even as we run over these tales the second time.

"The dead does Leonora fear?

Oh God! Oh no! — but talk not of the dead!"

Spencer's Translation from Berger.

Of 'The Fated Hour,' we shall only observe,

———— "Wan the maiden was,
Of saintly paleness, *and there seem'd to dwell*
In the strong beauties of her countenance
Something that was not earthly."

Bravissima! Joan of Arc! This, we say, is all the intimation of the nature of the story which we shall give: but there is a passage relating to this unearthly maiden, which we feel irresistibly compelled to extract; and let our fair — nay let our firmest — readers look to it, *as they read*. The sister is speaking:

"But a very extraordinary particularity, which I by chance discovered in her just as she attained her fifteenth year, created an impression of fear on my mind which will never be effaced.

"On my return from making a visit, I found Seraphina in my father's cabinet, near the window, with her eyes fixed and immoveable. Accustomed from her earliest infancy to see her in this situation,
without

without being perceived by her I pressed her to my bosom, without producing on her the least sensation of my presence. At this moment I looked towards the garden, and I there saw my father walking with this same Seraphina whom I held in my arms.

“ “ In the name of God, my sister —— !” exclaimed I, equally cold with the statue before me ; who now began to recover.

“ “ At the same time my eye involuntarily returned towards the garden, where I had seen her ; and there perceived my father alone, looking with uneasiness, as it appeared to me, for her, who, but an instant before, was with him. I endeavoured to conceal this event from my sister ; but in the most affectionate tone she loaded me with questions to learn the cause of my agitation.

“ “ I eluded them as well as I could ; and asked her how long she had been in the closet. She answered me, smiling, that I ought to know best ; as she came in after me ; and that if she was not mistaken, she had before that been walking in the garden with my father.

“ “ This ignorance of the situation in which she was but an instant before, did not astonish me on my sister’s account, as she had often shewn proofs of this absence of mind. At that instant, my father came in, exclaiming, ‘ Tell me, my dear Seraphina, how you so suddenly escaped from my sight, and came here ? We were, as you know, conversing ; and scarcely had you finished speaking, when, looking round, I found myself alone. I naturally thought that you had concealed yourself in the adjacent thicket ; but in vain I looked there for you ; and on coming into this room, here I find you.’

“ “ It is really strange,’ replied Seraphina ; ‘ I know not myself how it has happened.’

“ “ From that moment I felt convinced of what I had heard from several persons, but what my father always contradicted ; which was, that while Seraphina was in the house, she had been seen elsewhere. I secretly reflected also on what my sister had repeatedly told me, that when a child (she was ignorant whether sleeping or awake), she had been transported to heaven, where she had played with angels ; to which incident she attributed her disinclination to all infantine games.

“ “ My father strenuously combated this idea, as well as the event to which I had been witness, of her sudden disappearance from the garden.

“ “ Do not torment me any longer,’ said he, ‘ with these phenomena, which appear complaisantly renewed every day, in order to gratify your eager imagination. It is true, that your sister’s person and habits present many singularities ; but all your idle talk will never persuade me that she holds any immediate intercourse with the world of spirits.’

“ “ My father did not then know, that where there is any doubt of the future, the weak mind of man ought not to allow him to profane the word *never*, by uttering it.” ’

‘ The Death’s Head’ is the third story ; ushered in by a quotation from Young’s Night Thoughts :

———“ What

——— “What guilt
Can equal violations of the dead?
The dead how sacred!” ———

The tameness and mere prose of this motto serve as excellent foils to some of the others.

‘The Death-Bride’ is the fourth.

——— “She shall be such
As walk’d your first queen’s ghost.” *Shakspeare.*

This tale is one of the most interesting in the collection, but we cannot cite any passage from it.

‘The Storm’ is the fifth; — and only let a small family or friendly party, of males and females, draw round the blazing wood-fire of their dark wainscot parlour in the old *château*, or any other description of haunted house, while the rain and wind

“Beat dark December,”

and every individual of them hear this story without the secret thrill, the painful joy, nowhere so adequately described as in Joanna Baillie’s play of *Orra*: — let, we say, this event happen, and then we shall allow that, after all, *there is no such thing as a ghost*. It is impossible to detach a sentence from this tale without injuring the context; or with any chance of justly conveying its strong powers of excitement to the reader.

‘The Spectre-Barber’ concludes the volume, and properly and good humouredly dismisses the panic-stricken assembly,

“Sending its hearers laughing to their beds!”

ART. IX. *Correspondence of the late Gilbert Wakefield, B.A. with the late Right Honourable Charles James Fox, in the Years 1796—1801, chiefly on Subjects of Classical Literature.* 8vo. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1813.

WE have so long delayed our examination of this pleasing and scholar-like volume, that many of our readers will perhaps be surprized to see one of the literary remains of our great and lamented statesman now first noticed in our Journal. Some, indeed, on whose minds the baneful bias of politics exerts a visible and universal influence, may be disposed to view this smaller testimony of his genius with the same prejudiced or indifferent eyes that ungratefully surveyed that splendid fragment of history, to which we may most justly apply the well known antient saying, that even from the wreck may be conjectured the magnitude of the vessel which has gone to pieces. As much as we are able, however, we must avoid recurrence to a subject which has not only already been discussed in our pages,

pages, but on which, in the conflict of human passions and prejudices, time alone can produce unanimity.

Delivered from that painful and so frequently unavailing public exertion, to which of late years nothing but the sense of imperious duty could have constrained him, the cultivated mind of the patriot is here given up to those congenial inquiries into classical antiquity, which have formed the liberal delight of the great and good in every age. The same vivacity and force of intellect, the same ready memory and penetrating and solid judgment, which were exerted on the highest subjects for the benefit of his country, are here displayed on matters of elegant taste or of ingenious research. Classical scholars will be delighted to see their favourite pursuits followed with unabated ardour by such a man as Mr. Fox, at the close of an active life; and they will reasonably wonder at the spring and tenacity of that mind, which, after such long and discordant interruption, could return with all the acuteness and spirit of youth to the recollections and attainments of its first period of application.

In proceeding to give our readers as concise an account as we can induce ourselves to offer of the contents of this publication, we design to present them with such extracts as seem most likely to be generally pleasing.

The following quotation will first be necessary :

‘ A number of letters from the late Mr. Fox were left among Mr. Wakefield's papers, after his death; and have remained for some years at the house of his widow, at Hackney. As they appeared to be written almost entirely on subjects of Classical Literature, it was thought, that if Mr. Wakefield's share of the Correspondence could be recovered, the whole might form an interesting miscellany to scholars. Fortunately, Mr. Wakefield's Letters had been carefully preserved; and, on application to Lord Holland, they were given up, in the most obliging manner, by this nobleman, as a favour which he wished to confer on Mr. Wakefield's family.’

We shall not enter at length into the discussions on the insertion or omission of the final *ν* in particular cases, in the Greek language; on the *Æolic* digamma; on Homer's claim to the whole of the *Iliad*, and indeed *whether Homer was Homer*, or whether the *‘Ομῆροι* were a poetical college of old blind men. In all these questions, we are struck with the sagacity, good taste, and modesty of Mr. Fox. Paying due deference to the superior classical attainments of Mr. Wakefield, he manages the amicable controversy with success in some instances, we think, and with credit in all. He withdraws his own opinion, indeed, which at first favoured the occasional insertion of the *ν* in the instances in question, (supported by Porson, and a host of other authorities,

authorities, and only in fact opposed by Wakefield in the *constant* omission of the letter in such cases *,) rather more promptly than it was necessary for him to do: but 'either your authority,' says Mr. Fox to his learned correspondent, 'or Mr. Knight's, — much more both united, — would be quite sufficient to convince me on a question relative to the Greek language.' Afterward, however, he makes some useful remarks both on Wakefield's and Porson's opinions. As to the digamma, Mr. Fox has in our judgment manifestly the best of the argument. At all events, the following conjecture is very ingenious, and will probably meet with more general assent than Mr. Wakefield's unqualified proposition, that 'no verse in Homer is genuine where a consonant precedes *επος, ειπω, αναξ, ιδω*, and many other words which began with a digamma.' Mr. Fox thus replies, after much minute examination of the question:

'My hypothesis, if I dared to form one, would be this; and (every man loves his own best, — *της αυτου φιλει και κηδεται*) it appears to me more reasonable than any that I have yet heard. I suppose this digamma, at one period at least, not to have had the decided sound which belongs in general to consonants; and, consequently, that the poets of that period, the *Ὅμηροι*, thought themselves at liberty to sound it more or less, and consequently to treat it in the manner most convenient to their verse. If it was sounded sometimes more, and sometimes less, it might naturally happen that, in process of time, one dialect, viz. the Latin, might erect it into a decided consonant, *ϕ*; and others, viz. the Attic, &c. might wholly drop it. Thus, in modern Italian, in the word *uovo*, an egg, the *u* is pronounced at Florence in a manner very difficult to be imitated by foreigners, and which makes it appear to be something between a vowel and a consonant; but in other parts of Italy, where the language is corrupted, it is in some wholly dropped, and the word is pronounced *ovo*; in others, it is made a complete consonant, and sounded *uovo*. This may be, and probably is, a fanciful theory of my own; but, I own, I feel great reluctance to cut the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* to pieces, and to give them, not only to different authors, but different ages. I do not know whether Hesiod is, in your opinion, a contemporary with Homer; but, if he is, I think that in his *Εργα και Ἡμεραι* there is *απ' εἰγού χιμερας εἰνυχοι*: and *εἰγού* is, I suppose, one of the words with the *F*.'

It would have been pleasing to have seen the question of Homer's unity and integrity more strenuously defended by Mr. Fox. Here, too, we think that, either from disinclination to prolong the argument or from more than sufficient respect for his adversary, he quits the field without occasion; though not without hitting a few hard blows in his retreat:

* See the note to Porson's *Orestes*, line 64. It is quoted at length, page 91. of the "Correspondence."

‘ I have not said any thing yet upon the question which you seem to have thought most upon—whether the *Iliad* is the work of one, or more authors? I have, for the sake of argument, admitted it; but yet I own, I have great doubts, and even lean to an opinion different from yours. I am sure the inequality of excellence is not greater than in “*Paradise Lost*,” and many other poems written confessedly by one author. I will own to you, also, that in one, only, of the instances of inequality which you state, I agree with you. Atè is detestable; but I cannot think as you do of the death of Hector. There are parts of that book, and those closely connected with the death of Hector, which I cannot help thinking equal to any thing.’

We observe, in many passages of this volume, an unconscious proof afforded by Mr. Fox of his unusual diligence in the pursuit of classical knowlege; with indications of a vigour of application, and an earnestness in the search after truth of whatever kind, that might form good subjects for imitation in many more professed students. For example, (and there are several parallel cases,) considerably within a month, we find Mr. Fox attentively reading, with a view to illustrate the question of the digamma, ten books of the *Odyssey*. He also appears to have been recruiting his knowlege of the Greek drama with more alacrity than such studies, when long interrupted, are often resumed. All this is very honourable to his industry, and very delightful to observe in such a character.

As it is our purpose to avoid all political remembrances on the present occasion that do not necessarily attach themselves to the persons who conduct the correspondence, we pass over several such allusions, and come to a letter from Mr. Wakefield which contains more *general* information on classical subjects than most of the preceding. In answer to a request of Mr. Fox for some advice relative to Greek authors and their editions, his correspondent thus writes:

‘ Apollonius Rhodius was a great grammarian, as well as a poet; and therefore you should by all means have an edition with the Scholia. Shaw’s, though of no value as a critical work, is prettily printed, has the Scholia, and a most excellent index; and is therefore a very commodious book for use. You should get the last 8vo. edition. Brunck, however, it is impossible to do without, on account of his accuracy, and his MSS. It is a 12mo., not very easily got: there was one at Lackington’s the beginning of this year. Stiffness, and want of perspicuity and simplicity, appear to me the failings of Apollonius Rhodius.

‘ Aratus, as a versifier, is much in the same style; and in language harsh and difficult, partly from his subject. His *Phænomena* will hardly be relished, but by the lovers of astronomy; but his other work, on the Signs of the Weather, must be read, as it has been translated nearly by Virgil, in *Geo. i.* The small Oxford edi-
tion

tion is the best I know : it is become scarce and dear. I rather think they are republishing this poet in Germany. You would know by inquiring at Elmsley's. This poet has been little read, and seldom published.

‘ Nicander you will never have patience to read, I think ; otherwise, he was also a great linguist, but as obscure at least as Lycophron ; though his (Nicander's) obscurity is in the quaint and learned phrase, not in the meaning. His first poem, of about six hundred verses, treats of vegetable, mineral, and animal poisons, and their remedies : his second, of about a thousand verses, of noxious animals, their bites and stings, and remedies. They are good for me, as a Lexicon compiler, and a scholar by profession ; but I cannot recommend them to you.

‘ Dionysius Periegetes is, to my mind, the sweetest and simplest writer, both for verse and diction, of all the Greeks, far and wide, after Homer. The best and pleasantest edition, to my knowledge, is Stephens's, or the Oxford, which may easily be procured. They are very numerous. There are also some London editions ; but beware of Wells's mutilated and interpolated edition, for the use of Westminster School.

‘ Oppian is very puerile, and writes in a false taste ; but his descriptions are entertaining and exact. He alone, of all the antients, delineates the camelopard very accurately, and from nature. He will recompense the trouble of perusal. The best edition is Schneider's. Ballu, a Frenchman, began a very pretty edition ; but the *Halieutics*, by him, have not yet appeared. Rittershusius' also is not amiss.

‘ Nonnus was a Christian poet of much later date than the former ; of a most puerile and romantic cast : wrote a poem as long as all Homer : difficult to be procured, and not likely to approve himself to you. He versified also, pleasantly enough, John's Gospel.

‘ Lycophron by all means read, in Potter's later edition. A spirit of melancholy breathes through his poem, which makes him, with his multitude of events, as delightful to me as any of the antients. I have read him very often, and always with additional gratification. His poem is delivered in the form of a *prophecy* ; and therefore affects an ænigmatical obscurity, by enveloping the sentiment in imagery, mythological allusions, and a most learned and elaborate phraseology. Most obscure in himself, he is rendered perfectly plain and easy by his scholiast, Tzetzes, who was a Jew. No man equal to him in the purity of his iambics ; so that anapæst, tribrachys, and dactyl, are extremely rare in him. His narrative of the adventures of the Grecian chiefs, particularly Ulysses, after the fall of Troy, is infinitely interesting ; and his prospect of Xerxes' expedition into Greece, the devastation of his army, &c. is nobly executed. You cannot fail, I think, after the first difficulties are surmounted, to like him much.

‘ No resemblance, but in the name of the poem, between Apollonius Rhodius and Valerius Flaccus. He and Statius have ideas and expressions frequently beyond Virgil. Varro wrote an Argonautic Expedition, which Valerius Flaccus may possibly have imitated.

• The classics have been your *amusement*, not your *study*. *Alas!* the reverse has been the case very much with me. I have always reckoned upon amusing myself, if I lived to grow old; and have been therefore resolutely *labouring*, under almost every species of disadvantage, in my youth. On this account I never purchased Cowper: I have met with him occasionally. He appears to me a man of fine genius; but his *Task* borders too much on the burlesque for a fine poem. My revisal of Pope's *Homer* led me to read his translation of the Greek; and of all the miserable versification in blank verse, that is the most miserable I have yet seen. I have scarcely any books here; but I remember the beginning of *Odyssey* X. to be the most calamitous specimen of want of ear that ever came under my notice. It would be rash in me to give an opinion of his versification elsewhere; but between *his* versification in *Homer*, and that of Milton's *Paradise Lost*, there is, to my sense, as great a difference as can exist between two things that admit comparison at all. The *Faery Queen* stanza was always tiresome to me.

• You would cease to wonder at my twenty thousand words, if you saw my Lexicons; words good and true. You may cease also, when I mention that there are at least as many words of Nicander as that poet has verses, in no common Lexicon; two or three hundred in Oppian, as many thousand in Nonnus; and when I mention further, that in a day, one day with another, when I am occupied in this work, I at least add twenty from my reading, for months together; some, original words; the generality, compounds. What think you of five hundred solid and nervous words on the margin of my Johnson, not found in him, from *Milton* only; and perhaps two hundred from the same source, which Johnson gives, but without authority?"

We do not propose to detain our readers with any long observations on the preceding extract: but, *en passant*, we must say that, when such an assertion as that of *some* even of the ideas and expressions of Statius and Valerius Flaccus being beyond Virgil is boldly hazarded, something like proof in the way of quotation or reference should also be offered. Mr. Wakefield says, the superiority is *frequent*. — In the censure of Cowper's *Homer*, we in general agree. Not so, we are sorry to say, in the remarks on the character of Professor Porca, which stain one of the letters of Mr. Wakefield in this volume. Doubtless Mr. W. thought, as he professes, that his mind was perfectly free from any bias of rivalry, from any unworthy feeling whatever, when he wrote this severe and cutting denunciation of that learned man; of whose faults and failings many of his friends (and, contrary to Mr. Wakefield's assertion, *he* had many friends,) were sadly sensible. Omitting, however, any quotation from this unfavourable portrait, and abstaining from any examination of it, we shall only point it out as a lamentable instance of the facility with which the human heart deceives

itself; as on all other occasions, so especially in forming a judgment on our contemporaries, who are engaged in similar pursuits with ourselves.

The next citation shall be from a letter of Mr. Fox, in which he refers to something before suggested by him with relation to a Greek Dictionary :

‘ SIR,

‘ *St. Anne's Hill, March 12. 1800.*

‘ I received yesterday your letter, with the proposals for the *Lexicon*. I see innumerable advantages in an English interpretation; to which the only objection is, that it will confine the sale to this country: and, how far it may be possible to get two thousand subscriptions for a work useful only to English readers of Greek, I am afraid is doubtful. If schools and colleges are excepted, the number of those who ever even look at a Greek book in this country is very small: and you know enough of schools, no doubt, to suspect, that partiality to old methods is very likely to make them adhere to Latin interpretations, notwithstanding the clear advantage of using for interpretation the language we best understand. My endeavours to promote the work shall not be wanting, and you will of course set me down as a subscriber. My idea with regard to a Greek Dictionary, which I hinted at in a former letter, was suggested by a plan of a French Dictionary, mentioned by Condorcet in his *Life of Voltaire*. It is this: that a chronological catalogue should be made of all the authors who are cited in the work; and that the sense of every word should be given, first, from the oldest author who has used it; and then should follow, in regular chronological order, the senses in which it was afterwards used by more modern authors. Where the sense has not altered, it should be observed in this manner: “ *Θεός, a God. Homer: and is used in the same manner by the other authors.*” Thus we should have a history of every word, which would certainly be very useful; but perhaps it would require a greater degree of labour than any one man could perform. Condorcet says, that Voltaire had offered to do one letter of a Dictionary upon a principle something like this: but, even if he would have kept his word, one letter of a *French* Dictionary, upon this plan, would not be a hundredth part of a Greek one; for, besides the much greater copiousness of the Greek, the great distance of time between the early and the late writers must make a Dictionary upon this principle more bulky when applied to that language, (but, for the same reason, more desirable,) than it would be in any other.

‘ Soon after I wrote to you last, I read Apollonius (in Shaw's edition, for I have not been able to get Brunck's); and upon the whole had great satisfaction from him. His language is sometimes hard, and very often, I think, prosaical; and there is too much narration: but there are passages quite delightful to me, and I think his reputation has been below his merit. Both Ovid and Virgil have taken much from him; but the latter less, as appears to me, than has been commonly said. Dido is, in very few instances, a copy of Medea; whereas I had been led to suppose that she was almost wholly so: and of Hypsipyle, whose situation is most like Dido's,

Apollonius has made little or nothing. I have lately read Lycophron, and am much obliged to you for recommending it to me to do so: besides there being some very charming poetry in him, the variety of stories is very entertaining. Without Tzetzes I should not have understood, however, a tenth part of him; nor would they, perhaps, who treat this poor Scholiast with so much contempt, have understood much more. There remain, after all, some few difficulties, which if you can clear up to me, I shall be much obliged to you; and upon which neither Canterus, Meursius, nor Potter, give me any help. The most important of these is, that which belongs to the part where he speaks of the Romans in a manner that could not be possible for one who lived in the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus, that is, even before the first Punic war. Tzetzes speaks, it is true, of such an observation having been made; but remarks only upon the absurd way in which it has been expressed, without answering the observation itself: and the other commentators above mentioned are silent upon it.*

We too must be silent on what we have just quoted, pleasing and instructive as it is: because, desirous of affording our readers as much of similar entertainment as we can, we must waive our own reflections, to make room for one or two other specimens of Mr. Fox's talents and taste for the discussion of any question of antient literature:

* The verses you refer to in the fifth *Æneid* are indeed delightful; indeed I think that sort of pathetic is Virgil's great excellence in the *Æneid*, and that in that way he surpasses all other poets of every age and nation, except, perhaps, (and only perhaps,) Shakspeare. It is on that account that I rank him so very high; for surely to excel in that style which speaks to the heart is the greatest of all excellence. I am glad you mention the eighth book as one of those you most admire. It has always been a peculiar favourite with me. Evander's speech upon parting with his son is, I think, the most beautiful thing in the whole, especially the part from v. 574.; and is, as far as I know, wholly unborrowed. What is more remarkable is, that it has not, I believe, been often attempted to be imitated. It is so indeed in Valerius Flaccus, lib. i. v. 323., but not, I think, very successfully:

* Dum metus est, nec adhuc dolor —

goes too minutely into the philosophical reason to make with propriety a part of the speech. It might have done better as an observation of the poet's, in his own person; or still better, perhaps, it would have been, to have left it to the reader. The passage in Virgil is, I think, beyond any thing:

* Sin aliquem infandum casum —

is nature itself. And then the tenderness in turning towards Pallas,

* Dum te, care puer! &c.

In short, it has always appeared to me divine. On the other hand, I am sorry and surprised, that, among the capital books, you should omit the fourth. All that part of Dido's speech that follows,

‘ Num fletu ingemuit nostro ?——

is surely of the highest style of excellence, as well as the description of her last impotent efforts to retain Æneas, and of the dreariness of her situation after his departure.

‘ I know it is the fashion to say Virgil has taken a great deal in this book from Apollonius; and it is true that he has taken some things, but not nearly so much as I had been taught to expect, before I read Apollonius. I think Medea's speech, in the fourth *Argonaut.* v. 356., is the part he has made most use of. There are some very peculiar *breaks* there, which Virgil has imitated certainly, and which I think are very beautiful and expressive: I mean, particularly, v. 382. in Apollonius, and v. 380. in Virgil. To be sure, the application is different, but the manner is the same: and that Virgil had the passage before him at the time, is evident from what follows:

—— ‘ Μένειο δὲ καὶ πῶς ἔμοιο,
στέρνυμι καμάτοις, ——

compared with

‘ Supplicia hausurum scopulis et nomine Dido
Sæpe vocaturum.’ ——

It appears to me, upon the whole, that Ovid has taken more from Apollonius than Virgil.’

Mr. Fox had asked Mr. Wakefield, ‘ Did you, who are such a hater of war, ever read the lines at the beginning of the second book of Cowper's *Task*? There are few things in our language superior to them, in my judgment. He is a fine poet; and has in a great degree conquered my prejudices against blank verse.’ Mr. W. answers: ‘ I have occasionally looked in Cowper, though I possess him not. He appeared to me too frequently on the verge of the ludicrous and burlesque; but he deserves, I dare say, the character you give him. But surely Milton might have reconciled you to blank verse without the aid of Cowper!’ The reply of Mr. Fox is as follows:

‘ Milton, you say, might have reconciled me to blank verse. I certainly in common with all the world, admire the grand and stupendous passages of the *Paradise Lost*; but yet, with all his study of harmony, he had not reconciled me to blank verse. There is a want of flow, of ease, of what the painters call a free pencil, even in *his* blank verse, which is a defect in poetry that offends me more perhaps than it ought: and I confess, perhaps to my shame, that I read the *Fairy Queen* with more delight than the *Paradise Lost*: this may be owing, in some degree, perhaps, to my great partiality to the Italian poets.

‘ I have no doubt but your Dictionary will be a very interesting work, to those who love the Greek language ; but 20,000 new words seem impossible ; unless you mean, by new words, new significations of old words. I have some notions upon the subject of a Greek Dictionary that are perhaps impracticable, but, if they could be executed, would, I think, be incredibly useful : but this letter is too unconscionably long to make me think of lengthening it by detailing them.

‘ My hand mends slowly, but regularly ; and I do not now think there will be any exfoliation of the bone, though that is not certain. I am very glad to hear your Jamaica pupil, whoever he be, has done both you and himself so much honour.’

The act of Mr. Wakefield's pupil, to which Mr. Fox here alludes, was the remittance of a thousand pounds to his tutor, then a prisoner of state in Dorchester gaol : — the accident was a severe wound in the hand, which Mr. Fox received by the bursting of a gun ; and this circumstance occasions a friendly dispute concerning the character of field-sports in general, whether they be *digna homine docto voluptates*, in which Mr. Fox is the defender and Mr. Wakefield the assailant. The former, however, *retires from the field*, as usual. ‘ I believe I had best not continue the controversy about field-sports ; or, at least, if I do I must have recourse, I believe, to authority and precedent rather than to argument ; and content myself rather with excusing than justifying them.’

Such and so amiable was that distinguished person, whom we have been following into his literary retirement. Shall we pursue for one moment the idea of *secession*, and then leave our readers to reflect on the wisdom and the wit contained in the following application of a passage in Lycophron ? It will involve, perhaps, a little infraction of our engagement with regard to politics : but let our readers, as we have said, turn it in their minds, and see whether it will so easily admit of an answer as some persons in their supreme discernment have supposed :

‘ You have heard from the newspapers, of course, of my going to the House of Commons last month. I did it more in consequence of the opinion of others, than from my own ; and when I came back, and read the lines 1451, 2, 3, of Lycophron,

Τὴ μακρὰ τλημὴν εἰς ἀπηκοὺς πέτρας,
Εἰς κύμα κωφόν, εἰς ναπὰς δυσπλητιδᾶς
Βάζω, κτεὸν ψαλλοῦσα μαστακὸς κροτὸν ;

I thought them very apposite to what I had been about. In the last of the three, particularly, there is something of comic, that diverted me, at my own expence, very much. I mean

Βάζω, κτεὸν ψαλλοῦσα μαστακὸς κροτὸν.’

This

This correspondence commences with Mr. Fox's letter of acknowledgement to Mr. Wakefield, (Dec. 17. 1796,) for his presentation-copy of the magnificent edition of Lucretius which the latter dedicated to the former, and terminates just after Mr. W.'s liberation from confinement at Dorchester. The last letter (Aug. 21. 1801) is erroneously described as 'from the Same to the Same,' instead of *from Mr. F. to Mr. W.*

ART. X. *The Satires of Juvenal*, translated into English Verse. By Charles Badham, M.D. With Notes and Illustrations. 8vo. pp. 440. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

JUVENAL has been so often translated, that we are not sure that another version of this nervous satirist was required: but gentlemen who amuse themselves with this easy mode of versification, after having proceeded some way in the agreeable task which they have set themselves, and perceiving also that their MS. has acquired considerable bulk, are very unwilling that so much labour should terminate in mere self-gratification. Hence works which commence 'with no design beyond the mere pleasure of occupation' are in the end given to the world; and it is not surprizing that Dr. Badham, while he felt satisfied with his translation of the Satires of Juvenal, should be induced to believe that others even less partial than himself might derive pleasure from it. Still, even admitting the truth that 'scarcely any versions of Latin and Greek writers, certainly not of the poets, are within many degrees of general excellence,' a writer who offers a *new* version of any of the classics is bound in justice to himself, as well as to the public, to ascertain how far his efforts will bear a comparison with those of his predecessors in the same undertaking; and how far he has succeeded in approximating that *general excellence*, from which others are said to be removed by so many degrees. Instead, however, of attempting to shew that he has excelled his competitors, Dr. B. contents himself with saying:

'I knew that Juvenal had been already several times translated; with what degree of success at this period of my undertaking, I did not enquire, for I was well persuaded that to all performances of this kind a sufficient portion of failure must of necessity adhere, to exonerate from every reasonable charge of presumption the individual, who might choose to engage anew in the undertaking: a certain share of success might still, I thought, with no disrespectful sentiments towards the labors of others, be earned by my own.'

However satisfactory such an apology may be to the author, it is not exactly of a nature to answer his purpose with those

to whom he makes his appeal; especially when it is coupled with the account which he gives of his mode of execution:

'As to the degree of closeness to which I should adhere in my translation, the manner of its commencement, (which I have mentioned,) excluded at the outset any particular rule. Whatever principles I have adopted, presented themselves as I went on, and guided me more in *correction* than in *composition*. I apprehend, indeed, that no canons of this nature can well be laid down in translating poetry, or would have any chance of being acted upon, if they were. It must happen, at one time, the closest version will be also the most spirited, at another the reverse. Yet it will probably be seen, that I have on the whole judged strictness of interpretation to consist to a greater degree with the other objects which a translator proposes to himself, than is usually thought; and, accordingly, I have comprised the whole work in a much smaller number of lines than has hitherto been done.

'But although I have endeavoured not to lose sight of this principle, in general, I have never scrupled to abandon it, wherever the exigency of the case seemed so to require. I have also been scrupulous not to use any liberties with the author, excepting such as are sanctioned by general practice, and are for the most part unavoidable; such as an occasional expansion of the original thought, or the introduction of an expletive line, chiefly with a view to make the transitions less abrupt, the connection of subjects more clear.'

'Lastly, on the subject of my versification, I beg to say, that while strength has been more particularly my object, I am yet painfully conscious that a number of feeble and unsightly lines have escaped expulsion; but the labor of correcting is endless, and it became a duty to fix an arbitrary and impassable limit to further solicitude on this subject.'

This statement is not altogether of high promise; and, after the confession of the translator himself, he can have no reason to complain of critics, or to attribute their strictures to unamiable motives. Let us assure Dr. Badham that our pleasure is *not* 'in proportion to the failure of the works which we criticise;' and that we had much rather find reason to compliment him on his spirit and taste, than be forced to record an unfavourable sentence.

Dr. B.'s opinion may probably be correct, that 'translated poetry is most acceptable to those who are *not* unacquainted with the original;' but, if this be his conviction, he should have taken more pains to reflect the original in his translation, if we may so express ourselves. Even the commencement of the first Satire augurs ill:

That Theseid still! and is there no resource?
Shall Codrus, with diurnal ravings hoarse,
Shall whining elegies my peace invade,
And plays—that never, never can be play'd?

Shall

Shall Telephus, my life's perpetual curse,
 Pass, unrequited, with a single verse?
 Or huge Orestes, where, (alarming sight!)
 On no fair margin of reviving white
 The eye can rest, but ink and blackness all,
 One maze perplext—one complicated scrawl!

‘ The grove of Mars—the caves, where loudly roar,
 Grim Vulcan's forges on Catania's shore,
 My very old and tried good friends are these ——’

Can the line

‘ My very old and tried good friends are these’
 be considered as a version of

“ *Nota magis nulla domus est sua,*” &c.?

Juvenal does not say that the grove of Mars and the forge or cave of Vulcan are his *good friends*, but merely that as a poet he is well acquainted with these common-places.

No names being specified, we cannot ascertain to what contemporaneous translators Dr. B. refers in his preface, when he acknowledges ‘ *some acquaintance with their labours,*’ and assures us that his expectation of success has survived that acquaintance. The remark, however, induced us to make a specific comparison; and, knowing the estimation in which Mr. Gifford's version of the Roman satirist* stood with the public, we first selected this for our purpose, and afterward that of Mr. Francis Hodgson†, trusting that this simple process will not be attributed to ‘ the craft of modern criticism.’ We have quoted Dr. B.'s translation of the first passage in Juvenal; and we think that, when the following version of the same lines by Mr. Gifford is contrasted with it, the general opinion will be that the present writer has not furnished the market with an article superior to that which it before possessed:

“ And must I, while hoarse Codrus perseveres
 To force his Theseid on my tortured ears,
 Hear, ALWAYS hear, nor ONCE the debt repay!
 Must this, unpunish'd, pour his comic lay,
 His lyric, that! huge Telephus, at will,
 The livelong day consume, or, huger still,
 Orestes closely written, written too,
 Down the broad marge, and yet — no end in view!

“ Away! I know not my own house so well
 As Ilia's sacred grove, and Vulcan's cell.” *Gifford.*

Even on the score of compression, on which Dr. B. seems to pride himself, he is here surpassed by his predecessor; and

* See M. R. Vol. xl. N. S. 1. † M. R. Vol. lv. N. S. p. 246.
 surely

surely no idea suggested by the original could justify the 'blackness all' and 'complicated scrawl', in the Doctor's above-cited lines.

If we proceed to compare the very next passage which occurs in Dr. B.'s translation of the first satire, with the corresponding lines in Mr. Hodgson's spirited performance, we shall be obliged to confess that the present volume derives no advantage from the contrast :

' Yet where th' Auruncan erst with sounding thong
Lash'd his fleet coursers at full speed along,
Why of THAT plain the perils I pursue,
(Happy might I partake its glories too)
First let me tell—when to the marriage rite
The powerless eunuch fears not to invite;
When Mævia courts the onset of the boar,
And loves to hear the stricken monster roar;
When he, by whom my earliest beard was mown,
Could challenge senates with his wealth alone;
From Nile, — aye from Canopus, — when a slave,
Crispinus, comes the sneers of Rome to brave,
Recovering as he goes, with awkward air,
The purple robe he knows not how to wear,
Or blows his reeking fingers, all beset
With summer rings, the lightest he could get —
Thus for the scourge while vice or folly cries,
To write, and NOT write satire, might surprise.'

Mr. Hodgson's rendering is in every respect preferable :

" Yet why o'er Satire's dang'rous path I run,
And trace the chariot of Aurunca's son,
Attend, unprejudic'd — AND ASK YE THIS,
When the soft eunuch courts the wedded kiss!
When Mævia naked to the waist appears,
And at the boar directs her deadly spears;
When all our lords to him in riches yield,
Who reap'd my manly chin's resounding field;
When proud Crispinus o'er his back displays
Tyre's radiant purple to the public gaze;
The refuse once of his Egyptian home,
Canopus' scandal — now the boast of Rome!
Wearing a lighter ring in Summer's heat,
And fanning his fair hand beneath the weight —
Who can refrain from Satire's bursting rage,
Nor lash the crimes of this corrupted age."

" *Difficile est Satiram non scribere*"

is neatly given by Mr. Gifford in one line;

" 'Tis hard the rage of Satire to restrain." —

but Dr. Badham swells it into a couplet :

‘ Thus for the scourge while vice or folly cries,
To write, and *not* write satire, might surprise.’

We frequently observe the present translator foisting in a thought in order to complete his couplet or to furnish a rhyme, a liberty which ought to be sparingly indulged. He will perhaps say that he must not be condemned on an examination and comparison of certain scraps of the poem, but that his execution of the most striking passages in the Satirist whom he has undertaken to clothe in an English dress is the evidence which must decide. To such we willingly appeal ; and, as the conclusion of the tenth Satire is universally admitted to rank among the finest specimens of Juvenal’s intellectual energy, we shall quote Dr. B.’s version of it. The passage to which we allude extends from the words “ *Nil ergo optabunt homines,*” to the end of the poem, and is thus rendered in the volume before us :

‘ What then, does life supply no object, none ;
Is there no good to ask, no ill to shun ?
Nay, but do thou permit the Gods to choose,
What it is meet to grant, and what refuse,
Giving whate’er is good they oft deny
What only seems so, to our erring eye ;
Dear to himself is man, but far more dear
To them who mark how passion wins his ear ;
A wife, an home, and sweet domestic peace,
These boons *he* seeks with prayers that never cease ;
They, to whose altars and whose shrines he runs,
Discern the future wife, the future sons !
Yet, that thou may’st not want a ready prayer,
When the slain victim tells thy pious care,
Ask, that to health of body may be join’d,
That equal blessing, SANITY OF MIND :
’Gainst which life’s various cares in vain conspire,
And strange alike to anger and desire ;
Which views the close of life, from terrors free,
As a kind boon, Nature ! bestow’d by thee :
Which would the soft Assyrian’s down resign,
All his voluptuous nights, and all his wine,
For brave and noble darings ! Mortal, learn,
The boon of bliss thyself alone can’st earn ;
To tranquil life one only path invites,
Where Virtue leads her pilgrim and requites ;
No more a Goddess, were thy votaries wise,
Whose fond delusion lifts thee to the skies,
Thy place in Heaven, O Fortune ! we bestow,
Divine we call thee ; and WE MAKE THEE SO !’

The four lines which we have printed in italics are the dilated translation of

“ Nam

" *Nam pro jucundis optissima queque dabunt Di,
Carior est illis homo quam sibi.*"

Mr. Gifford's couplet is preferable to that which corresponds with it in Dr. Badham's pages :

" With eyes of pity they our frailties scan,
More dear to them than to himself is man."

The original of the last extract consists of 21 lines : but though Dr. B. cannot be accused of much diffusion in employing 30 lines to express the sense of Juvenal's 21, old Barten Holyday has executed the same task in 22 lines ; and, as his translation is growing so scarce that our readers may not easily procure it, we shall insert it by way of comparison. Though quaint and unadapted to modern ears, it is more close to the original, and more *Juvenalian* than that of Dr. B.

" Shall men then ask for nothing ? If thou'lt sway
Thy thoughts by mine, leave't to the Gods to weigh
What to us for our good they may commit :
'They'll give, not things that please, but things most fit.
'To them man's dearer than to himself. By strong
Passions and blind desires we led along
Ask wife and children : but before we crave,
'They know what wife and children we shall have.
Yet that thou may'st ask somewhat, and so bow
At their dread shrines, and choicest entrails vow
With a white hogg's pure sausages, still crave
In a sound body, a sound mind ; so brave
That death ne'er daunt it ; that does death account
'Mongst Nature's favours, and all grief surmount ;
'That knows no anger, nor desire ; and more
Esteems of *Hercules* his cares and soar
Task, than of love-sports, feasts, and the down
Sardanapalus laz'd on. This renown
Thyself may'st give thyself, without more strife,
Vertue's the only path to a quiet life.
The Gods are all ours, if we're wise. But we
O *Fortune*, 'mongst the powers divine place thee !"

'This conclusion is more intelligible than that of Dr. B. ; though far inferior to Mr. Gifford's

" ——— I but teach
What blessings man by his own powers may reach,
THE PATH TO PEACE IS VIRTUE. We should see,
If wise, O *Fortune*, nought divine in thee ;
But we have deified a name alone,
And fix'd in Heaven thy visionary throne."

Let us now turn back. In Dr. B.'s translation. Sat. i. l. 74.

‘ Rich with the spoils of orphans *in the rear,*
affords no view of the meaning of the original.

The line

“ *Ipsæ lacernatæ dum se jactaret amicæ*”

has invited the attention of commentators: but it is generally agreed that *ipse* refers to *Nero*, and the *lacernatæ amicæ* to *Sporus*. Mr. G. endeavours to express the virtuous indignation of the satirist at this infamous connection, by rendering the above,

“ And toy’d and wanton’d with his *master-miss.*”

Dr. B. yields to feelings equally indignant at the crime stigmatized, but is not equally happy in his version:

‘ While its base master woo’d his *monster-bride!*’

The Doctor is more fortunate in his translation of the well-known and often-quoted passage beginning with the words, “ *Aude aliquid brevibus Gyaris;*” and we shall give it, not merely because it is an exact translation, but for its exhibition of a striking feature in Juvenal, who endeavours, as in the last couplet, by a rapid and compressed enumeration of particulars, to make a strong impression on the mind of the reader:

‘ So wouldst thou prosper? — merit first the jail;
Let Gyarræ her worthless subject hail *;
For probity amidst applauses pines,
And gains ten thousand friends—but never dines.
Feasts, villas, lawns, the high-wrought vase of gold,
With goats emboss’d, to crimes, to crimes are sold!’

Here

‘ * *Let Gyarræ her worthless, &c.* Gyarus; Gyara, *hod. Joura*. ‘ There is not,’ says Mr. Tournefort, ‘ a more dismal place in all the Archipelago. We found nothing but huge field-mice, perhaps of the race that forced away the inhabitants, as Pliny reports. Joura is at this day entirely abandoned. We saw there three ghastly shepherds, who had been starving ten or twelve days, &c. It is twelve miles round. Vide Tournefort, *Voyage au Levant*, Vol. ii. where there is a bird’s eye view of the island. The Romans sent some of their troublesome persons out of the way, under the color of a small appointment, to a specious exile in Egypt, Africa, or Spain. But convicted criminals were sent to shift for themselves on some barren rock in the Archipelago, or elsewhere, such as the island above named, Seripho and others. (*Scopulosque frequentes Exulibus magnis*, Sat. xiii. 245.) Such too was Planasia, near Corsica, whither Augustus sent Agrippa Posthumus; and Patmos, to which St. John was banished from Ephesus by Domitian, and where, according to some

' Descendants of Quirinus ! I abhor
A Greek metropolis, on Tyber's shore.'

' To crawl into the vitals of a house' (p. 62.) is not English; and, if the following be English, it is of the same sort :

' Your fasting Greek knows all things — bid him go
A message to the moon — *he'll ne'er say No !*'

Dr. Johnson's parody has more spirit :

" And bid him go to Hell ; to Hell he goes."

Mr. Hodgson has given him another direction, more conformable to that of his author :

" Omniscient is a Greek by hunger driv'n,
Send him to Heav'n for food, he flies to Heaven."

In the opening of the sixth Satire, (a very long one, women being the prolific subject,) Dr. B. has with some success rendered the passage "*Multa pudicitia*," &c. and, though he allows that only the "*Jupiter nondum barbatus*" was to be trusted, he wishes, as he glances, by the aid of a Greek epigram, at this god's subsequent amours, to obtain for him a little credit on the plea of decorum. Let the passage and note speak for themselves :

' Some case or two perhaps the world might boast
Of female chastity not wholly lost,
When Jove succeeded to his father's throne,
But then — 'twas ere the monarch's beard was grown *.
When lies and perjuries as yet were rare,
Nor by his neighbour's head the Grecian sware ;
In unwall'd gardens while one yet might live,
And roots and orchards free from pillage thrive :
But when Astrea from the earth withdrew,
Alas ! the sister Goddess left us too !'

* * *But then 'twas ere.*—The sensual paradise of Mahomet would have been gross even to the apprehension of a worshipper of Jupiter, who always laid aside the God in his amours, for decency's sake, and perhaps too, willing to owe nothing to his rank. One admires however the taste of his various masquerades, as much as the success of them.—A summary of some of the principal exploits of this *Dans à bonnes fortunes* is contained in the Greek epigram, but probably a much more accurate catalogue in Ovid. Met. lib. vi.

' Ζεύς, κυνός, τειχός, σαρπηχός, χερσός δι' αμύτα
Ανδρς, Ευρωπης, Αρτιουρας, Δαναους.'

' For Leda, fair dame, a Swan Jove became,
For Europa a Bull, we are told,
A Satyr that he might gain Antiope,
And for Danaë glittering gold.'

Mr. Gifford was not satisfied with reporting the return of the two sisters to their native heaven, but expressed also the consequences of this event :

“ With her retir'd her sister in disgust,
And left the world to rapine and to lust.”

The amplification of Dr. B. is often poetical : but in a translation such as he professes to present it is not expected.

—— “ *Nectit quicumque canoris
Eloquium vocale modis laurumque momordit.*”

SAT. vii. l. 18.

is thus expanded into four lines :

‘ Who gnaws the bay and meditates the song
Where numbers sweetly link'd the charm prolong;
Where silver streams of gentlest cadence roll
And sense and sound combin'd allure the soul.’

The whole of this passage forms a very favourable specimen of Dr. B.'s powers, and we copy it with pleasure :

‘ None, none shall henceforth be oblig'd to bear
Dishonest toils unmeet for Poet's care,
Who gnaws the bay and meditates the song,
Where numbers sweetly link'd the charm prolong,
Where silver streams of gentlest cadence roll,
And sense and sound combin'd allure the soul.
Go on, for now Imperial eyes regard
Your studious toils — Imperial hands reward.
But elsewhere dream ye yet of patronage,
And fill the yellow parchment's ample page,
For fuel, Thelesinus, quickly call,
And to the spouse of Venus give them all !
Or find some hole, where thro' his favorite prey
The noiseless worm may work his secret way.
Yes, wretched man ! doom'd never to succeed,
Blot all those battles out and smash thy reed,
Who in that dusty loft from day to day
Art meditating still the lofty lay,
To future bards an image to bequeath
Of a starv'd Poet — with an ivy wreath !
Hopes be there none, the paltry miser pays
Not with his coin, alas ! but with his praise ;
And (just as boys the peacock's tail admire)
Commends the notes, but never pays the lyre !
While years glide on, by these fond hopes betray'd,
Fit for the oar, the helmet, and the spade,
Till grey-hair'd, starving eloquence shall see
Its faults too late, and curse Terpsichoré.’

Mr. Hodgson's version is thus expressed :

“ But, from henceforth, whoe'er can wake the lyre
To notes impregnate with celestial fire,

Rapt in high visions o'er the midnight oil,
 Shall bear no burthen of inglorious toil.
 Sing on, ye bards ! 'tis Cæsar prompts your lays,
 And seeks a subject for his royal praise.
 Sing on, ye bards ! but hope no other friend,
 On no encouragement but his depend.
 Burn ev'ry verse, for ev'ry verse is vain,
 If he inspire not your exalted strain ;
 Give to devouring moths your brightest page,
 That embryo-wonder of a future age. —
 Fond, dreaming, men ! who in your garrets high
 Pour forth an everlasting minstrelsy ;
 Of well fought fields and deathless heroes write,
 And with loud epics wound the ear of night,
 Mad for an ivy wreath, and image lean,
 Where wit and hunger are together seen ;
 Fond, dreaming, men ! renounce your rapt'rous joys,
 Break your lov'd tablets, stop your flowing voice ;
 For av'rice only listens to your lays,
 Only admires, and never, never, pays ;
 Just as the child a painted peacock views,
 So the rich miser wonders at the muse.
 — Meanwhile, regardless of the flying hours,
 Ye waste the vigour of your youthful pow'rs,
 And idly sing, till ye no more can bear
 The sweat of labour or the shock of war,
 Till old and poor, and weary of your toils,
 Ye curse the Muses and their barren smiles."

That the present translator is not always sufficiently nice with regard to his rhymes, (a fault to which we have just adverted in Mr. Hodgson,) the following couplets will evince:

— ' but there *be* some who *buy*,
 On higher terms the histrionic *joy*.' P. 137.

' By some long route circuitous *retreat*
 His cohorts drench'd, and all his banners *wet*.' P. 101.

Yet we must remark that he has been attentive to a more material point, we mean his management of the indelicacy and occasional grossness of his original. The disgusting sketch of Messalina in the 6th satire is well copied : but ' the fading stars' retiring train' (p. 141.) has no business even in the back ground ; because the trade of the *lupanar* was not regulated by the stars.

The pride of ancestry in the Roman nobles is ridiculed with great spirit and boldness in the 8th satire ; and Juvenal, to mortify them, intimates the origin of the nation : yet, *not*
 taking

taking leave of the subject, he does not expressly say that, great as the Roman people then were, they sprang from a band of robbers, but satisfies himself with informing the vainest among them on the score of hereditary distinctions, that his ancestor was either a shepherd or *a character which he should be unwilling to name*. This hint was broad enough: but Dr. B. makes the poet speak still plainer:

‘ And he of all that boasted line the chief
Was — O disgrace! A SHEPHERD OR A THIEF.’

The words “*Domestica seditionis tela*,” (viz. stones) in Sat. xv. l. 64., are well rendered by — ‘Th’ artillery of mobs:’ — but we cannot apply the same praise to a couplet towards the end of this satire: (p. 396.)

‘ But join the threshold of their homes, *that so*
Sound sleep from mutual confidence might grow.’

After Mr. Gifford had so neatly and so closely given the first sentence of the last satire, (the 16th,) by some attributed to Juvenal and by others not so ascribed,

“ *Quis numerare queat felicitis premia, Galle,
Militia ?*” —

“ Who can account the advantages that wait,
My Gallus, on the military state? —”

can the following new version by Dr. B. be hailed as a *boon*?

‘ The *boons* that ramparts, mounds, and camps bestow,
And all th’ immunities from arms that flow,
Ah! who can tell?’

Ramparts and *mounds* are introduced here without the smallest occasion, since they add nothing either to the sense or the spirit of the passage.

Easily could instances similar to the above be multiplied: but it is unnecessary to swell the enumeration. From the survey which we have taken of this work, we feel ourselves justified in saying that, though Dr. Badham’s translation was by no means a *desideratum*, and though we have made many specific objections to lines and passages, it is on the whole a faithful and true picture of the original; that the lines are flowing; and that the rhymes are for the most part unobjectionable. The notes with which the volume is enriched display learned research; and the utility of the whole is augmented by the short account, prefixed to every Satire, of the persons and places which are mentioned in it.

ART. XI. *Naples and the Campagna Felice.* In a Series of Letters addressed to a Friend in England, in 1802. Royal Octavo. pp. 400. With coloured Plates. 218. Boards. Ackermann. 1815.

ITALY is a truly interesting and inexhaustible subject. There, antiquity and novelty seem to be most intimately united. Classic objects and recollections blend themselves with the productions and history of the moderns ; and the eye is feasted in cities above and beneath the ground, in temples originally appropriated to pagan divinities but now dedicated to modern saints, and in the palaces of Christian bishops rising amid the ruins of edifices once inhabited by the emperors of the world. In this delightful region, the artist and the man of letters, the admirer of the beauties of nature, the investigator of the acts of past generations, and the pourtrayer of existing characters and manners, find a most ample field opened before them. Often as it has been explored, our curiosity remains only partially gratified ; we wish to hear more of this heaven on earth, — of this *Campagna Felice* ; and we hail every traveller with pleasant anticipations, who undertakes to present us with fresh details of this prolific paradise.

The title of the work now before us, therefore, and its illustrative and amusing accompaniments, seemed to offer us a treat which we were eager to enjoy ; and though the date of the letters is not very recent, yet, from the manner in which the publication is now arrayed, we were ready to suppose that its merit was not eclipsed by later accounts. We learn from the preface that the narrative first appeared, under the title of “Letters from Italy,” in a periodical miscellany, the proprietor of which has been induced, by the favourable opinion of friends, to print the whole in a separate volume, and to distinguish it by embellishments of the geographical, picturesque, and caricature kind. Notwithstanding all this pictorial recommendation, the work comes before us, if not in a questionable, at least in a motley shape. It is partly serious and partly comical ; and, as the traveller presents us with his dreams as well as his waking remarks, a suspicion is excited of his having had recourse to his imagination even in the apparent relation of facts. The name of the author does not appear in the title-page ; and, if we were to say that the *Don Luigi*, (also termed *Colonello*,) who is the chief actor and narrator in these Neapolitan rambles, indicated a Col. Lewis, we might lead our readers into a mistake, and be ridiculed for attempting to convert a fiction into a reality. We may, however, venture to assert that this Don Luigi is an easy, humorous, semi-Shandyan traveller ; who, whether he attempts to exhibit antiquities or “to catch the manners living as they rise,”

rise," shews that adroitness of execution which is a certain indication of both natural and acquired talents. No Englishman was ever more captivated with the fair Parthenope, or more solicitous to render justice to the Neapolitan character. Whether the comic scenes which he pourtrays be drawn from fancy or from life, or, being representations of actual events, have been *touched and coloured up* for more striking stage-effect, we perceive every where the hand of a skilful artist, and cannot help admiring the whole exhibition. If he rarely takes us to new ground, yet something new occurs in his *manner* of guiding us where we have been before. We are made indeed a little *fidgety* by his incessant digressions, and by his frequent introduction of his *Dear T.*; while we do not admit his apology 'that an epistle, like an epic poem, ought to have its episodes.' In preparing the work for a distinct publication, those redundancies should have been expunged which, however excusable in the first copies, could not fail of disgusting the reader of a series of consecutive epistles. Don Luigi will not be classed among superficial magpie tourists: but, when on every occasion he *flies off at a tangent*, he may be accused of chattering more than was necessary. From 1802 to 1815, ample time was allowed for revision.

In the April of the first-mentioned year, this traveller enters on *the happy field* which forms the subject of his correspondence with his dear T.: but it appears that he did not find the Italian spring so delightful as his imagination had painted it.

'Although in the month of April, we have had a transient shower of snow since my arrival; you should have seen the poor Neapolitans hurrying through the streets, muffled up to their chins in cloaks and great coats. I verily believe an eruption of their neighbour Vesuvius could not have affected them more sensibly. Indeed, my ideas of an Italian spring have more than once required modification. The sun (when unobstructed) is already, without doubt, much warmer than in England, but since my arrival this has seldom been the case; we have had an almost constant succession of showers and bleak winds. I have often longed for an English fire-side, but am under the necessity of contenting myself with a charcoal fire, brought into the apartment in a large brass pan made for the purpose. This mode of warming the rooms, although perfectly conformable to the customs of antiquity, very soon occasions the head-ach to persons who are not used to it: between this, however, and the alternative of sitting in a cold damp room with a stone or stucco floor, you are obliged to elect. Travellers, nevertheless, have extolled the charms of an Italian spring; to which I can only say, that I perceive very little difference between the vernal appearance of Campagna Felice and the county of Middlesex. Vegetation is at this time very little farther advanced in the former, and with the exception of the orange-trees and the rest of

the evergreens, the verdure in both is much the same. Poplars are but just budding, and the fruit-trees beginning to push out their blossoms. Hyacinths, tulips, and violets are the only flowers I have yet seen in the open air. *C'est tout comme chez nous !*

A visit to Virgil's tomb excites some remarks on the use which that poet made of the sublime scenery of *Campania*; and on his introduction into the Georgics and *Æneid* of the cavern of the Sibyl, the lake Avernus, Acheron, &c. which (we are reminded) are all borrowed from the environs of Cumæ and Pozzuoli, the volcanic districts of which may be poetically represented as the gloomy purlieus of the Plutonian regions. The traveller not being in good health when he visited Naples, the damp and cold of the Sibyl's cave were too much for his constitution, and he was obliged to retire before he had explored its utmost recesses*; yet he thinks that he saw enough to incline him to the opinion that this said cave is nothing more than a portion of the identical canal of communication between the lakes Avernus and Lucrinus;—but a mere visit to the spot is insufficient to decide on the accuracy of this conjecture, and the earth should be penetrated in the supposed direction of this canal in order to discover whether any certain traces of it exist. Abundance of natural curiosities and antiquities are to be found in this volcanic and earth-subverted country; of which our Italian books of travels are so full that it is unnecessary to run over the catalogue afresh. We shall not, therefore, regularly recount all the objects which presented themselves in the course of the excursion of Don Luigi and his Neapolitan friend Don Michele to Cape *Misenum*, or the Misenian promontory, but shall rather transcribe an account of the repast on their return to Pozzuoli, at the house of Don Giacomo:

§ Our dinner was excellent; and since, to my recollection, I have not yet treated you with an Italian bill of fare, it may, perhaps, be entertaining to you, to know some of the national dishes which made their appearance at Don Giacomo's hospitable board. The soup and bouilli were much the same as all over the Continent, except that the former contained small pieces of ham, and, among other herbs, much asparagus and purslain. At the four corners of the table were placed as many *piatti di rinfresco* (restorative dishes), consisting of small pieces of sausage, ham, olives, capers, garlic, &c. all of which swam in a well-peppered sauce of oil and vinegar. Of this a tea-spoonful is taken from time to time to whet the appetite. Another dish consisted of baked love-apples, the inside of which was filled with a high-seasoned meat stuffing. We had also a fry of certain parts of a young ram, which are put to no use in England, and which I forbear mentioning at present. This is considered a great delicacy here, even by the ladies. Maccaroni, as being too common, were not served up,

* The same reason prevented him from visiting the crater of Vesuvius.
but

but *raveoli* in their stead: These consist of two small pieces of flat paste, put together like the two shells of an oyster, and containing a rich stuffing of sweet herbs, garlic, and forced meat; the whole boiled in water. You, that have an aversion to garlic, will probably not envy this sumptuous fare: but this bulb, so much decried in England, may be said to be a necessary of life in these latitudes; even the sailors are constantly eating it raw, as ours would chew their pigtail tobacco. The dish which pleased me most, as it was new to me, was Tunny, cut in slices and broiled like a steak; eaten with lemon-juice, it tasted much like a veal-cutlet; so much so, that without being otherwise informed, I should have thought it butchers' meat, or any thing else than fish. The principal vegetables were asparagus and green pease; the latter of which, I am told, are in season all the year round: and for our desert, we had, besides strawberries, and cherries cooled with ice, a variety of sweetmeats and confectionary, prepared by the nuns of a convent in Naples, the exquisite taste of which would, I apprehend, render even you, my dear T. a defender of these monastic congregations. The wine was of the growth of the place, but old and generous. Its goodness is such, that I am confident, if the red wine of Pozzuoli were prepared for our London markets, that is to say, drammed up with brandy or alcohol, it would equal, if not excel, what is called port wine in England.

Over such a good dinner, you may well suppose, many a good thing was said on one side or another. Don Michele, in particular, was in full glee, and less sarcastic than ever I knew him; and Donna Giuliana, who, at my earnest request, was invited to pour out the coffee at least, diffused the lovely emanations of her beautiful countenance and her urbanity over all the guests. Even the ecclesiastic, who had hitherto confined his conversation to the praise of the dainties which he submitted *seriatim* to the review of his experienced palate, began to attempt other topics, and said as follows, addressing himself to your humble servant: "No doubt, Signor D. Luigi, the temples, baths, sepulchres, and other antiquities, which you have been at such pains to explore this morning, are well worth the attention of a gentleman of your taste and erudition; yet there is *one* curiosity which you have not seen, although it surpasses all the rest as much as the English nation exceeds us poor Neapolitans in industry, learning, and bravery, and which I shall be proud of shewing to you before you leave Pozzuoli." After such a *captatio benevolentie*, I could not refuse complying with the good father's invitation, assuring him, that ever since the presence of Donna Giuliana, I had been convinced that the antiquities on the other side of the bay, were by no means the most interesting objects for a traveller who made any pretensions to taste. "I am doubly beholden to Signor Don Luigi," replied the charming Juliana, "for assigning to me the first rank among the *antiquities* of Pozzuoli." I declaimed most strenuously against such an unwarrantable interpretation of my words, adding, that if even an unlucky turn of expression, in a language so new to me, were subject to that inference, I could only say, that such was my veneration of the beauties of the antique, that a comparison with its excellence was the highest degree of praise in my power to be-

stow. The pious father's impatience did not suffer this polite controversy to branch out into any further repartee, but interrupted us by declaring, that as soon as he had enjoyed his afternoon's repose, he would make good his promise, and shew us the self-same stone on which their holy protector, St. Januarius, had been beheaded for professing Christianity; nay, even the drops of his precious blood, which, by an unparalleled miracle, had indelibly adhered to it to this day; and although of a pale brown colour, would turn into a fresh red on every anniversary of his martyrdom. "It will be labour in vain," observed the arch Don Michele: "these English gentlemen are philosophers; they believe nothing but what they see, and even scarcely that; so we had better save ourselves the trouble of the pilgrimage." "But this he shall see, and therefore will believe it." With this curious syllogism the reverend father rose from table, promising that he would curtail his rest, in order to return in time for the exhibition.'

Don Luigi is mistaken in supposing that the *fry* which he mentions is unknown in England; where, in some counties, it is reckoned "a dainty dish, to set before a *queen*." To afford us an idea of the good living of the monks, he speaks of an *arsenal* of coppers, kettles, and stewpans, in the kitchen of one of the Neapolitan convents.

It is singular that, when the author proceeds to examine the excavations of Herculaneum and Pompeji, he meets with a sceptic in his Neapolitan companion; who insists that all the buildings found there, and the antiquities which they contained, were mere forgeries of modern date, like those *antichi moderni* with which cunning Italians furnish John Bull's travelling offspring. This scepticism becomes a subject of ridicule, and by no means restrains the writer from paying due respect to the buried cities of Herculaneum and Pompeji, the latter of which has been restored in a great measure to light, by the removal of the ashes and cinders from Vesuvius under which it was entombed; and three plates are subjoined, representing the *Temple of Isis*, &c. — the *Barracks* and *Theatres*, — the *Gate* and *High Street*. We must not pass over this portion of the volume without purloining some extracts from it:

'The quadrangular court which we first entered into, may be as large as the railed part of Leicester-square: it is surrounded on all sides by a colonnade, supporting the roof of a gallery; and from the gallery you enter a number of small apartments, not unlike the cells of a prison; or, to use an affirmative comparison, greatly resembling the galleries round some of our old inns, with the rooms adjoining; only, in the present instance, the corridor is on the ground floor, there being no upper story. The columns before mentioned are of brick, stuccoed over, and painted a deep red; from ten to twelve feet high, at about the like distance from each other, of the Doric order, fluted two-thirds from the top, and otherwise of good proportion.

proportion. This building was first taken for a gymnasium, afterwards for a prison, and, by some, for a school of gladiators ; at present it is declared to have been a barrack for soldiers, because various pieces of armour were found in some of the cells. These little apartments are highly interesting : many have their walls covered with inscriptions, and curious drawings. When I speak of inscriptions or drawings, do not let your classic imagination fancy to itself public records or *chefs d'œuvre* of art. I have it in my power at once to put you *au fait* in this business, only the comparison will be deemed vulgar. You, no doubt, have in your peregrinations visited certain apartments at country inns, where former visitors have thought proper to perpetuate the memory of their temporary abode, by some neat or clumsy couplets, epigrams, anacreontic or aphrodisiac effusions, traced either with pencil, chalk, or any pigment *nearest* at hand, or even with some sharp-pointed instrument, on the buff walls ; and, not unfrequently, may you have found those sentences illustrated by sundry hasty and whimsical sketches in the line manner, betraying all the rudeness of the infant art. Know, then, that such practice is of the highest antiquity ; witness the walls of the Pompejan barracks, on which we discovered a vast number of the like inscriptions, generally done in red chalk, but, in some instances, black, or white. Most of them consisted merely of the name of the writer, with the cohort and legion he belonged to ; on some, the consuls of the time were mentioned ; and a few were of a satirical import, levelled probably at an obnoxious centurion, or even tribune ; and, in order to give additional force to the text, a drawing of the subject of the pasquil was annexed, approaching, in point of design, as near as possible to the puerile sketches you may at times have noticed on some of the dead walls in the London streets. The letters were all capitals ; and although not absolutely like our present Roman alphabet, might easily be read, particularly by one who, from the Herculanean manuscripts, had become a little familiar with antique penmanship. Some names and sentences were Greek, whence it may fairly be inferred that the Roman troops were not solely composed of Italian subjects. A gentleman, of the name of Nonius Maximus, occurred repeatedly on those walls ; not, however, with "*mention honorable ;*" nor was the whole-length portrait annexed to his name such as to convey a favourable impression either of his figure or the skill of the artist.'—

' Close to the barracks, which appear to have stood in the most public part of the city, are the theatres, the forum, and one or two temples, all connected by very neat and well-paved courts ; or, where the ground is elevated, by commodious public staircases. The *tout-ensemble* appeared totally different from our present mode of building ; indeed, from its elegant compactness, the whole looked more like the model of a town, than a town in reality.' — ' To the right, a high wall separates the lesser theatre from the barracks : this is called the covered theatre, because it was so constructed, that, by canvas awnings, the spectators could be defended from sun or rain. A door through the wall leads into the different galleries, and into the open space in the middle, resembling our pit.'—

' The

“The great amphitheatre proudly rears its walls over every other edifice on the same elevated spot. For a country-town like Pompeii, this is a stupendous structure: it had twenty-four rows of seats, the circumference of the lowest of which is about 3000 Neapolitan palms, and is supposed to have held 30,000 people. The upper walls are much injured, having from time immemorial, before the discovery of Pompeii, partially projected above ground; and the whole is, altogether, not near so substantial and well preserved as the theatre at Verona, which I saw two years ago.

“You have now, my dear T. seen the fashionable, or rather public end, the Whitehall, of the town of Pompeii; a short trip will bring us into the High-street, the shops, barns, and the private dwellings of its inhabitants. Let us see what is going on there.”—

“The middle road is paved with large blocks of lava, and the ruts of the wheels proclaim its antiquity, even at the top of its being overwhelmed: the footpaths are more elevated than those in London, generally a foot and a half from the level of the carriage-road. The houses on each side, whether shops or private dwellings, have no claim to external elegance; they consist but of a ground-floor, and have no opening towards the street, except the door. No window is to be seen, unless the open counter of the shop towards the street be deemed such. The windows of the private houses look into an inner square court, and even those are generally so high, that to look out of them, must have required a foot-stool. The apartments, themselves, are, with the exception of one in each house which probably served as a drawing-room, extremely diminutive, and many very low. How the great Romans, for whom the world was too little, could bear to be cooped up in those little cells, not much larger than a water-closet, in a climate like this, will be a nut to crack for the antiquarians. Don Michele perhaps saved them the trouble. “If,” he observed, “I could persuade myself that these pigsties were actually the work of Roman architecture, I should feel no difficulty in solving the doubts of my credulous English friend. It was these very confined cells which made them so eager to get abroad, and enlarge, by conquests, their elbow room; and the same reason induces as modern Italians, who live in comfortable, lofty, and spacious dwellings, to remain where we are; convinced as we feel, that any change of abode would only be for the worse.”

“Friend Michele uttered this opinion of his with that unfortunate ambiguity of accent, peculiar to a certain description of people, which left it doubtful whether his meaning was ironical or serious. The name of pigsties, however, they can only deserve from their size. In point of decoration, the Pompeian rooms are neat, and, in many instances, superlatively elegant; the floors generally consist of figured pavements, either in larger stones of various colours, regularly cut and symmetrically disposed, or composed of some beautiful mosaic, with a fanciful border, and some animal or figure in the middle. It is surprising into how many pleasing shapes the fertile imagination of the artist would convert an endless variety of geometrical lines and figures in the design of their borders: these associated pavements alone would evince their skill in geometry.

The

The ground is usually white, the ornaments black, but other colours are often employed with increased effect. Thus much for the floors ! The walls of the rooms are equally if not more deserving our attention : they are painted, either in compartments, exhibiting some mythological or historical event, or simply coloured over with a light ground, adorned with a border, and perhaps an elegant little vignette, in the middle, or at equal distances. The former (the historical paintings) no longer exist in Pompeji ; for wherever a wall was found which contained a tolerable picture of some distinct subject, the Neapolitan government took off the painting, together with the upper surface of the wall, and deposited it in the Museum at Portici ; so that in those apartments which had previously been the most elegant, the bare walls, thus spoliated, now only remain.'

It is necessary to visit the Museum at Portici, in order to ascertain the merits of the antient artists by whom the city was decorated. On this subject, Don Luigi thus descants :

' In regard to the merits of the ornamental paintings, it is natural to suppose, that all are not equally praise-worthy ; but thus much I may venture to say, that while none deserve the stigma of daubings, very many are exquisitely beautiful. In the borders of foliage, there is an airiness, taste, elegance, and truth, which you have no conception of : indeed, upon a pretty extensive inspection of the works of ancient art, they appear to me to possess one feature of pre-eminence over those of modern artists, which may always serve as a test of their authenticity. This consists in that characteristic truth, calm repose, want of frivolity and meretricious ornaments, that sublime simplicity which, with a few exceptions, and those of very recent date, our modern productions are destitute of. The drawings at Pompeji look as if they had been taken from nature ; most of our's, as if they had been copied from a drawing-book. This characteristic fidelity extends to the most trivial subjects. A vine-leaf, to be sure, is a vine-leaf ; a butterfly, a butterfly : and both, drawn by the generality of the painters of our times, will, without a superscription, be recognized ; but they will want the peculiarity of character which, at first sight, strikes the eye with pleasure, and which, in an ancient painting, is obvious. Thus you observe, on one of the walls, a little vignette, representing a number of fish basking in the water, drawn in a most masterly style of nature : not, by any means, with Dutch minuteness ; on the contrary, bold ; but so expressive, so fanciful, that you forget the triviality of the subject in the discerning skill of the artist. On another wall, the eager contest of some birds pecking at fruit is every thing but life itself. A heap of dead game, a parcel of naked boys playing — how natural, how inimitably true !' —

' Besides the *naïveté* and truth in the design of the decorative paintings discovered in Pompeji, there is a humorous oddity in their composition, a fanciful extravagance which draws forth a simper of satisfaction. What can for instance be more ludicrous than a grasshopper travelling in a buggy drawn by a grave parrot ; a number of boys riding a race on dolphins ; a woman selling Cupids from a cage ; a faun fighting a he-goat ; a set of boys frightened by a little fellow's
holding

holding an ugly mask, as large as himself, before him; and a number of the like conceits, the offspring of a humourous, luxuriant, and (*entre nous soit dit*) lascivious fancy?"

We have, however, already occupied too much space to be able to devote even a page to the Royal Museum at Portici, to which the long buried riches of Herculaneum and Pompeji have been conveyed; and we must not even be seduced by this traveller's amusing details of the pleasant manner in which he was received and entertained by the *dear* Neapolitans, because we design to take our readers from the main land to the little island of *Capri* or *Caprea*, the celebrated scene of the voluptuousness of Tiberius: a rock on which he is represented by Juvenal as sitting *cum grege Chaldaeo*. The letters appropriated to this part of the tour have perhaps the greatest claim to novelty; at least the details are not so hackneyed. The voyage to this island was short; and, as our countryman could not find a *second* island near to Capri, answering to the *Αργαυπολις* of Suetonius, (see his life of Augustus,) reasonable doubt is intimated of the correctness of Suetonius's text in this place. The twelve villas, or rather their remains, were visited: but the most remarkable portion of this little island is a considerable elevation about the middle of it, called *Ana Capri*, the account of which is introduced in the Shandyan way.

" " You may do as you please, Don Michele; I shall not leave Capri without having seen *Ana Capri*."

" " Obstinate as usual.—English all over. Well! if it must be it must: but alone you shall not go. The rascals that stole the pigeons out of our pie are likely enough to watch you, rob you, murder you, and throw your carcase down a hollow in the rocks, when not a soul will know what has become of you. Much, therefore, as it goes against my inclination, I shall follow you up the mountain. It shall not be said of a Calabrese, that he has abandoned his friend, however extravagant he be in his whims."

" Ye black-galled and mesenteric judges of mankind, the affected maxims of whose cold philosophy, from personal experience, no doubt, assign to every human action but one spring, that of self-interest and egotism, cast your sullen looks on this honest Neapolitan, puzzle your jaundiced brains to find out sophisms whereby to wedge his kindness within the narrow precincts of your cheerless system: leave but to me the weakness of heart to feel grateful to an affectionate Neapolitan; who, eight weeks ago, knew not of my existence, who, except the trifling house-rent I pay him, is under no obligation to me; and yet, in every one of his actions, evinces an attachment and a solicitude for my welfare, which could not be excelled among friends the most intimate, and of the longest standing.—You too, my dear T. must love, for my sake, this honest mortal and his good-natured countrymen, and, I am sure, will expect no apology for my dwelling on a subject so gratifying to my feelings. I wish to stand
up

up the champion of a people whose character is the very reverse of the picture in which they have been exhibited by short-sighted and malicious vagabonds (travellers I won't call them). — But enough of this at present, or we shall never get up the five hundred and odd steps.

‘ Suffice it to say, that Don Michele and your humble servant, after having carefully enquired the bearings of the tortuous road, set out from our miserable inn; in better harmony than had yet reigned between us since our arrival on the island. Ana Capri, I make no doubt, is the only town or village in the world, which, after having already ascended to a great height, you can only reach by a staircase of five hundred and fifty-two steps!!! cut out of the rock in a serpentine direction. This immense flight of stairs is called *La Scalinata*; and the town, on the very summit, is nearly 2000 feet above the level of the sea. —

‘ At last we arrived at the summit, not exhausted, but certainly greatly fatigued. All my toils, however, were forgotten in an instant. I cannot describe to you the sensation I felt after I had mounted the last step. Tasso's description of the gardens of Armida; what you may have read of the gardens of the Hesperides; in short, the most luxuriant picture of your own imagination would fall short of the beauties of this terrestrial paradise. As by enchantment, you all at once find yourself in an extensive plain, not of sterile rock, as you might expect, but of the most delightful fields, olive-grounds, orchards, and vineyards, in the highest state of cultivation, interspersed with the neat habitations of the happy inhabitants. The whole appears like one immense garden, and may fitly be compared to the pensile gardens of Semiramis. To complete the beauty of the scene, this heavenly spot is peopled by a race of men, not to be surpassed in beauty and strength. You behold here our species in almost ideal perfection; not a cripple, not a dwarf, not an ailing individual will you meet with; all, even old age, is beauty, vigour, and symmetry; and, I am glad for system's sake, to add, all is goodness, simplicity, and honesty. Such is the character which universal report assigns to the fortunate Anticapriæans; whereas their near neighbours, the inhabitants of the town of Capri, are subject to the reproach of a crafty and deceitful disposition. The houses at Ana Capri are open day and night, thieving being entirely unknown among them; all live in harmony, and assist each other on every occasion of necessity. The enviable state of happiness they enjoy may in a great measure be attributed to local situation. On the summit of the rock they are almost entirely isolated from the world, and its physical as well as moral diseases. Few are the strangers that think of visiting Capri, and few of these are willing to undergo the toilsome journey to Ana Capri. A stranger among them, therefore, is a *rara avis*, and surveyed with wonder. Many of the inhabitants never quit the island, and, what is more, some have never descended even the Scalinata. The pure air they breathe, and the abundance of wholesome food raised with ease upon their excellent soil, invigorate their system, and perhaps even act beneficially on their moral disposition. I shall be laughed at, if I venture to assert the possibility of the latter being

even advantageously influenced, by the immensity of the beautiful prospect constantly before them. Yet I cannot help thinking, that such an exalted situation must contribute to expand the heart, and render it more susceptible of noble, or at least good emotions, than the pestilential effluvia inhaled in a St. Giles's cellar can be supposed to do. — If so, an elevated spot, like Ana Capri, would, perhaps, be the most eligible place of exile, for ameliorating and reclaiming the character of condemned malefactors. This, however, only as a speculative hint.' —

' Here we beheld the whole Tyrrhenian Sea, with its numerous and picturesque islands; the Gulph of Naples, Vesuvius, Misenum, and a thousand objects of interest. With a telescope, which I had unluckily left behind, we might have seen even Gaëta. The highly oxygenated air I breathed (I might say tasted), elevated the spirits of my whole frame; I felt like another man in another world. I could not help, at the moment, drawing a parallel between the state of innocent tranquillity this spot is blessed with, and the noisy bustle which at that same instant reigned in our Stock Exchange; the open serenity painted on every face we here met, and the sordid and disgusting features caricatured on the anxiously distorted countenances of many a hunter of scrip and omnium. — Come hither, I addressed in my thoughts those never happy worshippers of Mammon, here the grating of the shifting weathercock will not disturb the peace of your narrow souls; no packet from Hamburg, no messenger from Paris, will import your destruction: in unruffled tranquillity you may here glide down the tide of your mortal career; and here no famished heirs will gape for the pelf which you never knew how to enjoy.'

After such an excursion, it is the true *art of sinking* to bring us back to Naples to witness the liquefaction of the blood of St. Januarius; and we can scarcely find patience to wander through the long dream, in which the writer has contrasted the many grand discoveries of the moderns with the scanty knowledge of the antients. The idea is evidently borrowed from Mercier's *L'An 2440*: but it is not so well managed; and *Eupator's* introduction and re-animation are a very clumsy contrivance, which shocks probability and prepares us for the finale,—*all this is but a dream*. We are more amused with the traveller's pictures of the society of Naples, and with his balls and suppers; in which the views of national character and manners, though surely a little caricatured, are probably *not far* from existing realities. Don Luigi seems to be quite at home with the Parthenopian damsels; and if, after his ball or rout, in which he regaled them with iced punch, they proceeded in the Bacchante style to take his jars of wine by storm, he must admit that such an after-piece was not ill adapted to the previous comedy. — Quitting *dear* and according to him *calumniated* Naples with regret, the traveller recounts his passage without

without injury over the insalubrious Pontine marshes, to the once capital of the Roman world: but *farther this deponent saith not.*

A writer who attempts epistolary ease and familiarity is very apt to lapse into inaccuracies and vulgarisms; and some instances of this kind occasionally deform the pages before us. For example: — ‘The Dutch, *I* *wager* ;’ — ‘a narrow passage, *for all the world like*,’ &c. ; — ‘the audience was *none of the genteelst* ;’ — ‘not very methodical, *to be sure* ;’ — ‘I cannot in *all conscience* ;’ — ‘in a matter of a quarter of an hour ;’ — ‘The villa was not *near so far*,’ &c.

The maps and plates, which are seventeen in number, and very pleasingly executed, certainly enliven the narrative. Some of the caricature prints are executed with great spirit, and give with laughable effect the scenes which the traveller so minutely describes.

ART. XII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London.* For the Year 1815. Part I. 4to. 12s. 6d. sewed. Nicol and Son.

MATHEMATICS, &c.

ADDITIONAL Observations on the Optical Properties of Heated Glass and unannealed Glass-Drops. By David Brewster, LL.D. F.R.S. Edin. and F.S.A. Edin. — In Dr. Brewster’s former paper on the optical properties of heated glass and unannealed glass-drops, (Rev. Vol. lxxvi. pp 257. 261.) he briefly described the leading phænomena which they exhibit in their action on polarized light. These experiments he has since frequently repeated with the same results, as likewise has M. Biot, of the National Institute; and they may now therefore be considered as completely established, and as forming a new principle in physical optics. The present memoir contains the results of farther experiments and observations connected with this subject; principally with the view of ascertaining whether melted glass, suddenly cooled, which the author had found to possess the optical properties of crystallized bodies, exhibited any other indication of crystalline structure. For this purpose, he examined the bulb of an unannealed glass-drop; and, by holding it between the eye and a sheet of white paper, he observed a number of lines converging to the vertex, and found the same structure more or less perfect in every unannealed drop, though it was never discoverable in those that were annealed:

‘ It

‘ It exhibited itself even on the surface, and seemed to be owing to an imperfect crystalline form, yet it was not marked with sufficient distinctness to entitle me to consider it as the effect of crystallization. In one specimen, however, where the bulb remained unshattered, while all the rest of the drop was burst in pieces, the lines diverging were most distinctly marked, and the bulb was actually cleft in the direction of these lines, so as to produce a real dislocation at the *surface* of the drop. We may therefore consider the drop as possessing that crystalline structure which gives cleavages in the direction of lines diverging from its apex. By examining the fragments of the drop after it is burst, another cleavage is distinctly perceptible: it is parallel to the outer surface, and produces a concentric structure like that of an onion. This cleavage also shows itself in the splinters which are detached from the surface of the drop when it is ground upon freestone. A third cleavage is visible in the direction of lines inclined to the axis of the drop; but it is not so distinct as the two first.’

Having thus far satisfied himself on this head, Dr. B. proceeds to describe the nature of several other experiments and observations under various degrees of heat; as also the difference in the specific gravities of annealed and unannealed drops; in the course of which he throws out a hint on the possibility of supplying ‘one of the greatest desiderata in the arts, a *pendulum of invariable length*.’

The paper concludes with the following observations:

‘ The effects of heat, as indicated by the preceding experiments, are, perhaps, too imperfectly developed to authorise us to draw those important conclusions, to which they seem so well calculated to conduct us. One of these, however, is so palpable, and so clearly deducible from the phenomena, that it must already have suggested itself, namely, the production of a *new species of crystallization* by the agency of heat alone. When light is transmitted perpendicularly through a plate of glass, the glass exercises no more action upon it than if it were a mass of water. When the glass, however, is heated, the particles not only expand, but assume a new arrangement, till at a certain temperature the crystallization is complete. As the temperature diminishes, the particles approach one another, and gradually recover their former arrangement. The crystallization, which is thus produced in drops of melted glass, is rendered permanent by the sudden immersion of the drop in water, which arrests the particles in that particular position that constitutes the crystalline state of the body. Hence it follows that the particles of glass, when separated to a certain distance by the expansive energy of heat, assume a crystalline arrangement; and, unless they are fixed in this state, by a sudden diminution of temperature, the crystallization is gradually destroyed by the approximation of the particles which takes place during the operation of slow cooling.’

Description of a new Instrument for performing mechanically the Involution and Evolution of Numbers. By P. M. Roget, M.D.—

This

This instrument, in its general principle, resembles the common sliding rule, but is of more extensive application; or it is at least applicable to a variety of arithmetical operation which cannot be effected by the latter. In the sliding rule are two lines, the one fixed and the other moveable, logarithmically divided, and numbered at certain intervals; not by the number of parts, but by the numbers of which those parts are the logarithms. If, therefore, we bring the unit on the one scale to any number on the other, and then carry our eye forwards to any proposed number on the moveable scale, this number will obviously stand opposite to a number on the fixed scale which has its logarithm equal to the sum of the logarithms of the two proposed numbers, and is therefore equal to the product of them. By the reverse operation, (that is, when one number is to be divided by another,) if we bring the number forming the divisor under that which forms the dividend, the number opposite to the unit of the first rod will be the quotient sought. It is obvious, however, that, with this construction of the instrument, it is adapted only to the multiplication and division of numbers, is of little use in the case of involution, and is not in any respect applicable to evolution. With the assistance of a pair of compasses, indeed, it might be made subservient even to the latter, while the index of the root was the reciprocal of an integer: but, when this is not the case, the instrument becomes wholly inadequate to the purpose.

Dr. Roget has supplied this defect on principles which are at once obvious and simple, and which may thus be stated generally. Let $a^n = b$; then we have $n \times \log. a = \log. b$, and consequently $\log. n + (\log.)_2 a = (\log.)_2 b$: the two latter expressions indicating the logarithmic logarithm of a and b , or (as it is commonly called) the second logarithm. If, therefore, the sliding rod of the instrument be logarithmically divided as in the Gunter-scale, and the fixed line above it be divided according to the scale of the second logarithms, it will obviously have the same relation to the operations of involution and evolution which the common sliding rule has to multiplication and division: for now if we bring the unit on the slider to any number a on the fixed line above it, and then carry the eye forwards to the number n on the slider, the number opposite to it on the fixed line will evidently have its distance from the beginning of its scale equal to the sum of the second logarithm of a and the first logarithm of n , and is consequently, from the preceding formula, equal to the n th power of a , as required: while, by the reverse operation, any root of a proposed number may be as readily obtained. It is

true that the answer cannot be found to any great degree of accuracy, nor performed on numbers of any considerable magnitude: but there are many cases in which such an instrument would be found convenient; particularly in the solution of exponential equations, where it applies with astonishing facility, although no known arithmetical method whatever exists by which such equations can be solved, except by means of a very tedious, supposititious, and approximative operation. Let it be required to find the value of x in the exponential equation $x^a = a$. Here we have $\log. x + (\log.)_1 x = (\log.)_a$; therefore invert the slider, and bring its unit under a ; then look backwards on the increasing line of numbers on the slider, and the decreasing numbers on the fixed line, till two on both rods be found equal and opposite to each other, which will denote the index and root required: since, in this position of the instrument, it is evident that the distance from the unit to a is equal to the distance of x from its respective units on both scales.

A variety of other questions connected with logarithms will also be readily answered by means of this instrument; such as those relating to geometrical progression, the density of the air at different altitudes, the amount of money at compound interest, annuities, and in short all that have their solution ultimately depending on the theory of logarithms or exponential equations. With regard to questions in annuities, compound interest, &c. we have seen an instrument that solves them very readily, made by Mr. Cary, optician, in the Strand; and, as this must, we conceive, be divided on the same principles with those of Dr. Roget, (though we did not at the time examine minutely into its construction,) we cannot say whether this author may be considered as the *first* inventor of the scale which he proposes.

The great objection to all instruments of this kind is the narrow limit within which they are applicable, and the confined nature of their approximation. This defect, however, Dr. Roget has endeavoured to avoid by having projected an instrument of a circular form which he has described and exhibited in a plate in the present memoir: but, as he does not appear to have put it in actual practice, it may be doubtful how far this form of the instrument would succeed.

Experiments on the Depolarization of Light as exhibited by various Mineral, Animal, and Vegetable Bodies, with a Reference of the Phenomena to the general Principles of Polarization. By Dr. Brewster. — It appears that, in the course of a set of experiments in which Dr. B. was engaged, relative to the transmission

sion of light through diaphanous bodies, he discovered the property which many of them possessed, of depolarizing the rays of light; or of depriving them of the polarity which they had received either by reflection from the surface of a transparent body, or by transmission through a plate of agate.

‘As this singular property was possessed by numerous substances that exhibited no marks of double refraction, and even by animal and vegetable products such as horn, tortoise-shell, and gum Arabic, it appeared necessary to distinguish it by a new name, and to refer it to a species of crystallization different from that of doubly refracting crystals. The circumstance, however, of agate and Iceland spar possessing the faculty both of polarising and depolarising light, and the constant relation in the position of the axes which regulated these apparently opposite actions, induced me to think that the two classes of phenomena had the same origin. This opinion was afterwards strengthened by an experiment with a bundle of glass plates, in which light was depolarised by polarising it in a new plane; but in applying the principle to other phenomena, I was baffled in every attempt to generalise them. By extending, however, and varying the experiments; by examining the optical properties of every substance which I could command, and by comparing their structure with the phenomena which they exhibited, I have been led to the general principle to which they all belong, and to a series of results which, from their very nature, could not easily have been established by direct experiment. These conclusions, independently of their optical consequences, are peculiarly interesting to the chemist and the natural philosopher, by disclosing the structure of organised substances, and exhibiting new relations among the bodies of the animal, the vegetable, and the mineral kingdoms.’

In the following pages of this memoir, the author details his examination of the effect of a great variety of different bodies in producing this depolarization, as also a table of many other bodies which do not appear to possess this property in any sensible degree. The number and variety of his observations and experiments, however, are such as to render it impossible for us to follow him through them, or even to make an intelligible abstract of them. We must therefore confine ourselves to his statement of the various modes in which the former class of bodies produces the depolarization in question; which he reduces to the seven following:

1. When the crystal possesses neutral axes, and forms two images which are capable of being rendered visible, as in *calcareous spar*, *topaz*, &c.

2. When the crystal possesses neutral axes, and exhibits only a single image, as the *human hair* and various *transparent films*.

3. When the crystal has no neutral axes, but depolarises light in every position, as in *gum Arabic*, *caoutchouc*, *tortoise-shell*, &c.

E c 2

4. When

‘ 4. When there is an approach to a neutral axis, as in *gold-beater’s skin*, &c.

‘ 5. When the crystal depolarises, or restores only a part of the polarised image, as in a *film of sea-weed* and a *film from the partian*.

‘ 6. When the crystal depolarises luminous sectors of nebulous light, as the *oil of mace*.

‘ 7. When the crystal restores the vanished image, but allows it to vanish again during the revolution of the calcareous spar.’

The author next considers each of these cases of depolarization under a separate article; exhibiting, in the development of his theory, a degree of ingenuity equal to the patient research which he must have exerted in the experiments themselves; but we doubt whether the results which he has deduced, or may deduce from farther experiments, (though they are certainly interesting to the physical optician,) are likely in their nature to recompense him for the labour which he must necessarily bestow on the subject.

On the Effects of simple Pressure in producing that Species of Crystallization which forms two oppositely polarized Images, and exhibits the complementary Colours by polarized Light. By the Same. — Certain circumstances, arising in the course of the experiments which form the subject of Dr. Brewster’s preceding memoir, led him to pursue them still farther, in order to ascertain the effect that pressure might have in producing a few remarkable phenomena which he had observed; and for this purpose, in order to be able to apply a sufficient force without injuring the structure of the substance, he employed animal jellies. His first experiments were accordingly made on cakes of calf’s foot jelly, placed between two glass plates; and afterward on isinglass similarly situated. From these experiments are deduced the following results:

‘ 1. That soft animal substances which have no particular action upon light acquire, from simple pressure, that peculiar structure which enables them to form two images polarised in an opposite manner, like those produced by all doubly refracting crystals, and to exhibit the complementary colours produced by regularly crystallized minerals.

‘ 2. That soft animal substances, which already possess the property of depolarising light, receive from simple pressure such a modification in their structure as to enable them to exhibit, in a very brilliant manner, the complementary colours produced by crystallized minerals.

‘ 3. That soft animal substances which only depolarise a portion of the incident ray, have their depolarising structure completed by simple pressure.’

On the Laws which regulate the Polarization of Light by reflexion from transparent Bodies. By the Same. — This is a
very

very interesting and valuable memoir; the author having exhibited in it the laws of an optical phenomenon, first discovered by Malus, but which that celebrated philosopher failed in reducing to any fixed and uniform principle. It was Malus who first established the general fact "that light acquires the same property with one of the pencils formed by double refraction, when it was reflected at a particular angle from the surface of all transparent bodies." He discovered that the angle of incidence, at which this property was communicated, depended on the refractive power of the medium; so that the greater was that power, the greater was the incident angle; — and he also measured, with much accuracy, these angles for water and glass. In order to ascertain the laws which regulated the phenomena, he compared these angles with the refractive and dispersive powers of glass and water; but, not finding any fixed relation between them, he concluded (as it now appears, too hastily,) that "the polarizing angle follows neither the order of the refractive powers, nor that of the dispersive forces. It is a property of bodies independent of the other modes of action which they exercise on light."

Dr. Brewster, however, though he seems to entertain the highest respect for the talents and memory of M. Malus, was by no means satisfied with this sweeping assertion: he therefore repeated the experiments of that author, and measured the polarizing angle of a great number of transparent bodies; endeavouring in vain, in the first instance, to connect the results with any general principle.

' The measures for *water* and the *precious stones* afforded a surprising coincidence between the indices of refraction and the tangents of the polarising angles; but the results for glass formed an exception, and resisted every method of classification. Disappointed in my expectations, I abandoned the enquiry for more than twelve months, but having occasion to measure the polarising angle of *topaz*, I was astonished at its coincidence with the preceding law, and again attempted to reduce the results obtained from *glass* under the same principle. The piece which I used had two surfaces excellently polished. The polarising angle of one of these surfaces almost exactly accorded with the law of the tangents, but with the other surface there was a deviation of no less than two degrees. Upon examining the cause of this anomalous result, I found that one of the surfaces had suffered some chemical change, and reflected less light than any other part of the glass. This artificial substance acquires an incrustation, or experiences a decomposition by exposure to the air, which alters its polarising angle without altering its general refractive power. The perplexing anomalies which Bouguer observed in the reflective power of plate glass, were owing to the same cause, and so liable is this substance to these changes, that by the aid of heat alone, I have

produced a variation of 9° on the polarising angle of flint glass, and given it the power of acting upon light like the coloured oxides of steel.

Having thus ascertained the cause of the anomalies presented by glass, I compared the various angles which I had measured, and found that they were all represented by the following simple law: *The index of refraction is the tangent of the angle of polarisation.*

This, then, being laid down as a general principle, (which is justified by the very near approximation of the calculated and measured polarising angle of eighteen different bodies,) the author proceeds to investigate the geometrical consequences of it, in separate propositions, of which the following properties are the most simple and interesting:

• *PROP. IV.* — When a pencil of light is polarised by reflexion, the sum of the angles of incidence and refraction is a right angle.

• *Cor.* — The complement of the polarising angle is equal to the angle of refraction.

• *PROP. V.* — When a ray of light is polarised by reflexion, the reflected ray forms a right angle with the refracted ray.

• *PROP. VI.* — If light were polarised simply by the action of the reflecting force, the polarising angle would be 45° .

• *PROP. VII.* — Every ray of light polarised by reflexion has been acted upon by the refracting force before it has suffered reflexion.

• This follows from the light not being polarised at 45° , but at various angles increasing with the refracting force.

• *Cor.* — It results from this proposition, that light suffers a partial refraction before it is reflected; and that the refractive force extends to a greater distance than the reflecting force from the surface of transparent bodies. This result is not only consistent with the most extensive analogies, but affords an explanation of phenomena, which have hitherto been unexplained.

• Bouguer, for example, observed that at $87\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ of incidence, a surface of water reflected 614 rays, while glass reflected only 584. Now supposing the light to be refracted by the water and the glass before it suffers reflexion, the real angle of incidence upon the glass will be only $57^\circ 44'$, while the angle of incidence upon the water will be $61^\circ 5'$; so that the pencil, being incident more obliquely upon the water, ought to be more copiously reflected.

• *PROP. VIII.* — When a ray of light is incident at the polarising angle upon any substance whatever, it receives such a change in its direction, by the action of the refracting force, that the real angle of incidence at which it is reflected and polarised is 45° .

• *Cor. 1.* — At the instant of reflexion, when the refraction at B commences, the refracted ray sets off at right angles to the reflected portion.

• *Cor. 2.* — The real angle of polarisation is 45° , the effect of the refractive force being merely to bend the ray of light so as to make it suffer reflexion at this particular angle.

• *Cor. 3.*

Cor. 3.—The excess of the angle formed by the incident and the polarised ray, above a right angle, is equal to the angle of deviation.

We cannot follow the ingenious author through the other part of his memoir: but we beg to congratulate him on the discovery of a law which had been sought by Malus, but which escaped the penetrating genius of that celebrated philosopher.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, ANATOMY, CHEMISTRY, &c.

On an ebbing and flowing Stream discovered by boring in the Harbour of Bridlington. By John Storer, M.D.—The circumstances of this stream are as follow. A well was bored through 28 feet of very solid clay, and afterward through fifteen of a cretaceous flinty gravel; when the auger struck against a solid rock, which the workmen could not penetrate. The bore was quickly filled with a copious stream of very pure water, and it was soon observed that the height of the water was in a regular ratio to that of the tide in the harbour.

As soon as the surface of the sea-water in the harbour, during the flowing tide, has arrived at a level of forty-nine or fifty inches lower than the top of the bore, the water begins to flow from it, in a stream equal to its calibre, the impetus of which is increased as the tide advances, and may be observed to be propelled with much force after the bore is overflowed by the tide. The discharge continues from four to five hours, i. e. till the tide in returning falls to the same level where it began to flow: at this point, it ceases completely till the next flood shall have regained the same level, when the same phenomena recur, in the same succession; and without any variation, but what arises from the different degrees of elevation in the tides. The rule appears to be, that the column of spring water in the bore, is always supported at a height of forty-nine or fifty inches above the level of the tide, at any given time.

It is, however, stated that, in winter, after any unusual fall of rain, the column of fresh water has been raised eight feet above the level of the tide, and the period of its discharge has been proportionably prolonged. The cause of this variation in the height of the water does not seem to be very well explained; and it will be necessary to have a more accurate account of the disposition of the strata in the neighbourhood before we can account for it.

Experiments made with a View to ascertain the Principle on which the Action of the Heart depends, and the Relation which subsists between that Organ and the nervous System. By A. P. W. Philip, physician in Worcester.—The author informs us that these experiments were commenced in order to discover the manner in which certain poisons act in destroying life; and that he found it necessary to ascertain the extent and nature of

the connection between the muscular and the nervous systems. All physiologists are agreed that the nervous system has a direct dependence on the sanguiferous : but it is still much doubted how far the sanguiferous depends on the nervous. The point, which is the object of this author's immediate investigation, is the degree in which the power of the heart is influenced by the state of the nervous system.

Before the days of Haller, it was generally supposed that the muscles derived their power from the nerves ; whereas he maintained that there are two distinct vital powers, one appropriated to each of these parts. Since his time, the opinions of physiologists have been very various, but on the whole adverse to his doctrine ; it being deemed a very powerful objection to it that the heart is influenced by affections of the mind, and that it is supplied with nerves. A French anatomist, M. Le Gallois, has lately taken a new view of the subject, and has announced, as the result of direct experiment, that the action of the heart depends not on the brain itself, but on the spinal marrow. Dr. Philip suspected that these experiments were not altogether accurate, and consequently performed those which compose the principal part of the present paper. The first set, of which rabbits were the subject, consisted in destroying the spinal marrow and sometimes the brain of the animals ; respiration was then artificially kept up ; and the heart continued its motion for almost an indefinite period. The circulation also remained for some time, when the lungs were not inflated, but in this case the blood assumed the dark venous hue. The following remarks may be regarded as a summary view of the result :

‘ From various trials, we found that in such experiments the circulation ceases quite as soon without, as with the destruction of the spinal marrow. Loss of blood seems to be the chief cause which destroys it. When the animal was operated upon, without being rendered insensible, pain also contributed to this effect. We frequently, after laying open the skull and spine, found the circulation lost before either the brain or spinal marrow had been disturbed. In the younger rabbit, it was lost sooner than in the older. The former seemed to die sooner from any injury, except the interruption of respiration. The circulation is particularly apt to fail, if artificial respiration is not carefully performed after the animal ceases to breathe. In making such experiments, after opening the bone, it is always necessary to ascertain whether the circulation continues, before we destroy or remove the brain or spinal marrow. As little blood is lost in this part of the operation, when the carotid arteries were beating before, we always found them beating after it. The result of this experiment is still more striking in the cold blooded animals, in which death takes place so slowly, that the circulation continues long after the total destruction of the nervous system.’

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The same general effects were obtained from frogs; the motion of the heart not being immediately arrested by the removal of the brain and spinal marrow. Dr. P.'s next object was to try the effect produced on the heart, by stimuli so applied to the brain and spinal marrow as not to excite any of the muscles of voluntary motion. For this purpose, a rabbit was deprived of sensation and motion by a blow on the occiput, and alcohol was then applied to the different parts of the brain and spinal marrow; when a considerable increase of action was observed in the motion of the heart. It was found also that the peristaltic motion of the stomach and intestines continued after the complete removal of the brain and spinal marrow. These second experiments prove that the action of the heart, though independent of the brain and spinal marrow, may be influenced by external agents, applied to any considerable portion of either of them; and that they are as readily influenced by agents applied to the anterior part of the brain, as by those which act on the upper part of the spinal marrow.

It seems to be proved by the experiments of M. Le Gallois, that the office of the spinal marrow is to excite the muscles of voluntary motion, which it does independently of the brain; yet injuries to the brain affect the functions of the spinal marrow. To illustrate this point, comparative experiments were made on the limbs of frogs, some of which had the nerves divided, and others had not; and it appeared that the irritability was as rapidly exhausted in the one case as in the other. The muscles are therefore supposed to possess a power peculiar to themselves, and the nervous influence to be one among other stimulating causes which produce contraction. Thus the heart may be affected by the nervous influence, though it is generally made to contract by other causes; and it differs from what are usually called voluntary muscles, merely in the circumstance of its being less frequently subject to the nervous influence. As all the stimuli which affect the voluntary muscles act through the medium of the nerves, they are distributed to these parts in a larger proportion. The opinion of Dr. Philip, which in a great measure coincides with that of Haller, is expressed in these general propositions:

‘ 1. That the muscles of involuntary motion obey the same laws with those of voluntary motion.

‘ 2. That the apparent difference in the nature of these muscles, arises from their being under the influence of different stimuli.

‘ 3. That they are both capable of being stimulated through the nervous system.

‘ 4. That the power of both is independent of the nervous system.

‘ 5. That what is called the nervous system consists of two parts, whose existence is not immediately dependent on each other; the

one performing the sensorial functions, the other conveying impressions to and from the sensorium, and, without bestowing any power on the muscular system, acting as a stimulus to it.

‘ 6. That there is therefore in the most perfect animals a combination of three distinct vital powers, not immediately depending on each other; one of the muscular system, one of the nervous system properly so called, and one of the sensorial system.

‘ 7. That the muscular system, though independent of the nervous system, is so influenced by it, that the power of the former may even be destroyed through the nervous system.

‘ 8. That both the muscular and nervous systems, though independent of the sensorial system, are so influenced by it, that they may even be destroyed through it.

‘ 9. That although in the less perfect animals we find the muscular life existing alone, and the muscular and nervous existing without the sensorial life; in the more perfect animals they are so connected, that none can exist long without the others.

‘ 10. That nutrition, circulation, and respiration, are the means by which they are so connected.’

Experiments to ascertain the Influence of the spinal Marrow on the Action of the Heart in Fishes. By Mr. W. Clift. — The subject of this paper is very similar to that of Dr. Philip, of which we have just given an account, and was also suggested by M. Le Gallois’ hypothesis that the action of the heart is dependent on the spinal marrow. The experiments of the French author having been made on warm animals, in which it is more difficult to observe the operation of the functions separately, Mr. Clift determined to repeat them on the Carp; which is so tenacious of life as to retain its muscular power four hours after its head has been cut off and its heart removed. After having observed the rate of the heart’s pulsation when this organ was simply exposed to the atmosphere, Mr. C. next examined it after the spinal marrow had been destroyed, when it appeared to be little affected. His conclusion on this subject, therefore, agrees with that of Dr. Philip, and is in contradiction to that of M. Le Gallois.

Some Experiments and Observations on the Colours used in Painting by the Ancients. By Sir H. Davy, LL.D. F.R.S. — Though the capital works of the great painters of antiquity are lost, still some considerable specimens of antient art exist among the ruins of the Roman buildings: these, at least in some cases, are works of considerable excellence; and, with respect to the nature of the materials employed, they may afford a fair example of the manner of the first artists. Sir H. Davy, during his late tour on the continent, engaged in a chemical examination of the nature of the colours which were found in the frescos of the baths of Titus, and other remains of celebrated buildings, both

in Rome and in Pompeii; and he gives the result of his inquiries in the paper now before us. He treats of the different colours in separate sections; red, yellow, blue, green, purple, black, and brown; and the paper concludes with some observations on the manner in which the antients applied their colours, as well as on their respective durability. Some vases were discovered about two years ago, in the apartments belonging to the baths of Titus, which were filled with mixtures of different paints with clay and chalk; in these were three kinds of red, an orange red, which was minium, and a dull and a purplish red, which were both ochres. In one of the frescos, vermillion was discovered. The yellows appear to have been ochres; and in one of the vases the colour was mixed with chalk; massicot was also detected: but orpiment, though described by Vitruvius, was not found among the colours examined by the present author. The blues seem to have derived their hue from the oxyd of copper, which was ground into a frit with silex or chalk; the latter substance being added in order to dilute the colour or diminish its intensity. Sir H. D. supposes this to have been the pigment which is described by Theophrastus as having been invented by an Egyptian king, and manufactured at Alexandria. Pliny mentions blues which were formed of *lapis lazuli* and the arseniates of copper, and also a species of indigo, but these were not detected by Sir H. Davy. The antients formed a species of blue glass, which was probably coloured by cobalt.

Some green colour, from the ceiling of the baths of Livia, proved to be carbonate of copper; and an olive was found, which was the green earth of Verona: but no trace of the arsenical preparation called Scheele's green. In the baths of Titus, one of the vases contained a paint of a rose-colour, which appeared to be a species of lake, but the author could not ascertain whether the colouring matter was of animal or vegetable origin. The durability of this lake, which was certainly a singular circumstance, is ascribed to the attractive power of a large mass of alumine mixed with it; 'for, whenever one proportion of a substance is combined with many proportions of another substance, it is very difficult to decompose or detach the one proportion.' The black colour on the fresco appears to be merely carbonaceous matter; and the brown paints in the vases were ochres, or compounds of iron and manganese. The whites were either lime or fine clay, and no cerussa was discovered. These colours were applied in a moist state to the surface of a stucco formed of powdered marble, cemented by lime. It does not appear that wax-varnish, or any animal or vegetable gluten, had been employed in mixing or laying on the colours.

colours. Sir Humphry remarks that the durability of the blue frit is decisively proved by the Roman frescos, and he gives a receipt by which it may be easily and cheaply prepared. The azure, the red and yellow ochres, and the blacks, have not changed in any perceptible degree during 1700 years: but the vermilion and minium appear rather inferior to the modern articles; and the greens are generally dull. The most durable colours are those which are formed into a frit with some earth; next to these metallic combinations, which are insoluble, and are saturated with oxygen or an acid, form the best pigments. — The author concludes by suggesting the trial of some substances which have not yet been employed as paints, and which promise to combine beauty with durability.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, FOR AUGUST, 1815.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 13. *The Lady's Medical Library, or a Treatise on the Diseases particularly incident to Women and Children; and on Practical Midwifery.* By T. Parkinson, M.D. In Three Parts. 12mo. Printed at Loughborough.

It is sometimes said that an author is the best judge of his own works. He certainly knows what he intends them to be, and what means he has employed to accomplish his object. Of the result, however, the indifferent or even the captious critic is perhaps more qualified to give a correct opinion; and it but too frequently happens that the judgment of the author and his critic will be much at variance.

The following quotations are taken from the preface to the tracts now before us.—‘The observations on parturition form a complete and entire system of practical midwifery, and of the diseases during and subsequent to pregnancy; and it will serve as a guide to practitioners in midwifery.’ Dr. P. then informs us that the diseases of children ‘are distinguished by their respective symptoms, and that their appropriate treatment is clearly and fully laid down:’—that ‘the whole is written in plain and familiar language, easily to be understood by those who have not had the advantage of a classical education; and it is particularly adapted to the instruction of the mother and the nurse.’ We are next told that ‘the medical treatment of diseases is rendered as simple and intelligible as possible;’ that ‘the pathology of the breasts of women is novel in its distinctions and arrangements;’ and, lastly, that ‘the whole will be read with peculiar interest by the physician, the surgeon and apothecary, the mother, the nurse, and all admirers of medical science.’

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Such great promises could not but excite some expectation, though perhaps a little damped by their very extravagance: but, on the perusal of the work, we found them to be gradually lowered as we advanced, until they at length arrived at a standard very different from that which is assigned by the author. No doubt, the essays contain many truths, and much good advice; and a strain of common sense pervades the whole which is highly commendable, and often preferable to more splendid ingenuity: but, on the other hand, they are common-place, and often so concise as to be totally useless.

We shall make a quotation of one or two of the short sections of which the essays are composed. On the 'predisposing causes of Abortion,' we have these observations:

'Two predisposing causes of abortion have been alleged, as existing in the uterus. The one is a relaxed or debilitated state of the uterus; and as this is more or less manifested by symptoms of general laxity and debility, it is to be counteracted by such remedies as are calculated to give tone and vigour to the system; for we are not acquainted with any that can be otherways communicated to the uterus itself.

'To regulate then the functions of the viscera; to enjoin light and nourishing diet, with a suitable allowance of wine; moderate exercise; and agreeable association; assisted by cinchona, steel, the cold bath, and other tonic remedies, comprehends all we have to recommend.

'The other alleged predisposing cause is too great sensibility, or rigidity of the uterus; and as this is connected with symptoms of a contrary character to those just mentioned; namely, morbid irritability; painful sensation in the region of the uterus; pyrexia, &c.; such should be removed by bleeding, gentle laxatives, opiates, and warm bathing, as recommended in painful menstruation.'

From the account of diseases to which young children are incident, we select the account of Hydrocephalus:

'The watery head is generally and perhaps almost always the consequence of erysipelatous inflammation of either the membranes or the ventricles of the brain, terminating by effusion.

'It most commonly is preceded by the marks of inflammation in the meninges of the brain, and in that stage it should be attacked by the means of removing inflammation by resolution.

'After inflammation is subdued, light tonics and moderate exercise should be employed.

'But when effusion has taken place, the child becomes apoplectic, and almost always dies under that affection.

'Mercurials have been recommended, and though it is the best remedy perhaps that can be employed, is seldom successful.'

Art. 14. *A Treatise on the Management of Parturient Animals.* In Two Parts. By T. Parkinson, M.D. 12mo. 9s. bds. Printed at Loughborough.

We acknowledge that we have but little acquaintance with the veterinary art, in any of its branches, and that we are therefore incompetent judges of the merits of this treatise; except from the
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analogy which we may suppose must exist between human parturition, and that operation when performed by the inferior animals. The object is the same, the same means are employed to attain it; and in general the direct effects are similar. Yet, as far as the interference of art is concerned, a great difference may prevail between the two cases. The practice of midwifery, among the higher ranks in the metropolis, may be said to be a different art, on some occasions proceeding even on different principles, from the midwifery of the African negro or the American Indian. In both cases, indeed, a certain process is established by nature, which, when it proceeds regularly, is sufficient, without any assistance, to accomplish the end: but, in the one instance, the impediments are so numerous as to render aid always desirable, and often essential,—in the other, seldom necessary, and not unfrequently injurious. We must suppose the inferior animals, in their natural state, to be still less in need of assistance than even the rudest tribes of the human race; and it hence becomes a question of fact which can be determined only by accurate observation, how far the influence of domestication can reduce them to the condition of the delicate European female.

A second consideration respects the character and abilities of the persons likely to be called to assist on such occasions. We must reflect whether it be probable that the rude understanding and rude hand of the herdsman, or shepherd, can be so trained by any directions that it is possible to convey in books, as to comprehend the scientific principles of the obstetrical art, or to practise them with advantage.

These remarks, it is obvious, do not tend to the disparagement of Dr. Parkinson's work individually, but apply merely to the general principle on which it is founded. We think that the treatise itself possesses many of those qualities which are the best calculated to promote the object of the writer: though it may be said to proceed altogether on scientific principles, it is clear and perspicuous; and, though we doubt whether a large part of it will not be unintelligible to that class of persons for whose use it is especially intended, we do not know that it would have been possible to make it much plainer.

A very concise *Manual of the Treatment of Parturient Animals* is also published by Dr. P., price 1s.

Art. 15. *An Account of Baths, and of a Madeira-house, at Bristol, with a Drawing and Description of a Pulnometer; and Cases shewing its Utility in ascertaining the State of the Lungs in Diseases of the Chest.* By Ed. Kentish, M.D. &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.

As this pamphlet is addressed to the public at large, we might expect that its contents would be of a nature adapted for general perusal: but the most important parts of it, at least those which refer to the two subjects first mentioned in the title-page, can afford very little interest to those who are not immediately connected with the author and his neighbourhood. Almost the only information that we receive respecting the baths is that they are established under the direction of Dr. Kentish; that they supply every accommodation for patients of all descriptions; and that the use of them is very properly left

left open to all the medical faculty of the place. As to the Madeira-house, we have merely an account of a plan that was projected, but which the sober good sense of the citizens of Bristol did not conceive to be so important, or so lucrative, a speculation, as it was represented by the author, and which was never carried into effect.

After having given an account of the existing baths, and the intended Madeira-house, the author devotes several pages to an account of the 'natural and artificial thermal waters,' which is neither scientific nor amusing. We have then a section on 'some analogies between plants and animals,' which is filled with those vague and indefinite observations that throw no real light on the subject, and tend only to substitute inaccurate words for correct ideas. Dr. K. remarks that vegetables are organized, as well as animals; that juices circulate in their vessels; and that they absorb, exhale, and secrete. All this is literally true, but is it more than *literally* true? Is the organization similar? Is the circulation carried on by the same kind of powers? Is the apparatus for absorption, exhalation, and secretion, of the same nature? Have plants any vessels like lacteals and lymphatics; any glands of similar structure to those in the animal body; or do we know any thing respecting the exhalation, except the mere fact that both animals and vegetables throw off an aqueous fluid from certain parts of their surface? How much more does the same kind of reasoning apply to such observations as these?—'digestion, absorption, circulation, secretion, are all functions in the animal, similar to those which we observe in vegetables.'

Following these remarks on vegetables, we have an abstract of Bichat's doctrines respecting life; doctrines of great ingenuity and importance, but not, we apprehend, unknown to the medical profession in this country, as Dr. K. supposes, Bichat's works having now been published for several years, and being familiarly quoted by many English writers. The object, however, as it appears, of this abstract, and of all the preceding remarks,—as well as of two sections that follow on the effects of climate, first on vegetables, and then on animals,—is to prove what nobody (surely) ever doubted, that the health and constitution are considerably influenced by external temperature. The concentrated information of above 40 pages is, we believe, intended to be conveyed in the following propositions, the greatest part of which are self-evident, and required no proof; while the 3d and 8th, which alone are essential to the argument, are far from being established, and indeed the 3d is palpably incorrect:

1. That there is a great analogy between plants and animals.
2. That plants, and the organic part of animals, are, in many instances, influenced by the same agents.
3. That plants are entirely dependent upon climate.
4. That an artificial climate may be prepared for plants, which will enable us to have any plants we wish, in any climate.
5. That animals, as well as plants, are influenced by climate.
6. That animals, as well as plants, suffer deterioration, disease, and death, from sudden and great changes of climate.
7. That the salutary influence of an artificial climate is proved by our success in keeping exotics.
8. That

* 8. That it is probable equal benefit would accrue to animals by an artificial climate; it would secure those who come from a southern zone, and would impart the genial influence of a more southern clime to the delicate and valetudinary of our own climate, who, from delicacy of structure, may be regarded as exotica.'

The instrument, which is dignified with the title of Pulmometer, is simply a graduated jar, inverted over water, into which the patient is to pass one expiration through a tube. Those who are conversant with the experiments that have been performed on the lungs will be aware, that this must be a very inadequate method of ascertaining their capacity; and we conceive that it could not prove of any material use in guiding either our practice or our prognosis.

Art. 16. Letters addressed to his Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, on Consumption Containing Remarks on the Efficacy of equable and artificial Temperature in the Treatment of that Disease, &c. By Thomas Sutton, M.D. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 60. Underwood, 1814.

The author states, in the preface, that these letters were written in order to be inserted in a daily paper, but that he altered his intention and determined on printing them in a pamphlet. The form of popular letters is perhaps one of the worst that could have been adopted for conveying scientific information on medical subjects, and for discussing a point of controverted theory; and their awkwardness is increased, now that their original destination is changed. The circumstance which gave rise to the work is this. Dr. Buxton some time ago published a recommendation of the employment of an artificial temperature, as it has been called, for the cure of consumption; the proposal appeared so plausible, that some thoughts were entertained of forming an establishment for the reception of consumptive patients; and a public meeting was convened for the purpose. At this meeting, the Duke of Kent presided, and to him the present letters are consequently addressed.

Dr. Sutton objects to Dr. Buxton's proposed plan, partly from the want of sufficient evidence of the benefit of an equable or increased temperature, and partly from an idea that a perfectly dry atmosphere is unfavourable for phthisis. His arguments, however, do not appear to us to be very powerful or very well supported on either point; and they are so much encumbered with repetitions, and so protracted with unnecessary diffuseness, (partly arising from the form in which he has chosen to convey them to the public,) as to diminish the effect which they might otherwise have produced. In passing this censure on the present author's tract, we are not to be understood as advocating Dr. Buxton's proposal; which we are disposed to think would be, on several accounts, objectionable, if not impracticable. The subject, however, is one which merits a candid discussion, and we wish that Dr. Sutton would arrange his ideas on it in a more digested manner: a task to which we believe him to be fully competent.

Art. 17. A View of the comparative Advantages and Disadvantages of the Navy and Army-Surgeon, and of the Surgeon in private Practice;

Practice ; together with a proposed Amendment of the Condition of Assistant Surgeons, at their Outset in the Navy. By William Cullen Brown, M.D. Surgeon of H. M. Prison Ship, Arve Princen. 8vo. pp. 80. Underwood. 1814.

It is the object of this pamphlet to shew that the condition of the navy-surgeon, at least when first entering on his professional career, is much inferior to that of the army-surgeon ; and to point out a method by which this inequality may be removed. The author begins by drawing a lively and (we are disposed to believe) a correct picture of the situation of the young practitioner, when he first takes possession of his appointment on board of ship ; a situation which appears unfavourable not merely to his present comfort, but to those habits which are necessary for his future respectability. A young surgeon ought to have had the education and to possess the manners of a gentleman ; and he should be desirous of continually acquiring additional information.

‘ This gentleman, so educated and hitherto accustomed to associate with polite people in middling life, instead of being admitted to mess in the ward-room or gun-room, among officers more suitable to himself in point of years, understanding, and circumstances, and having an established cabin assigned to him, doomed in future to the society of boys and mere striplings, is compelled to submit to the innumerable inconveniences and hardships of the midshipmen’s berth ; a complete description of which would be neither brief nor easy. The petulance of the younger, and frequently the waggery or rudeness of the older midshipmen, together with the noise of all, effectually combine to prevent him from application ; and he can rarely, for an hour together, snatch an opportunity of perusing his book without molestation.’

Dr. B. then describes the state of the army-surgeon, and contrasts it with the above. *He* immediately acquires a certain rank, which procures him the respect of those about him, and introduces him at once to the best society which his situation can command ; while he has the advantages of leisure and quiet for the prosecution of his studies. — The picture afterward drawn of the young surgeon establishing himself in private practice, although not very flattering, is supposed to be preferable to either of the others.

The remedy here proposed for the evil attached to the situation of the navy-surgeon is simple, and perhaps would prove efficacious :

‘ Did the assistant-surgeon at his outset enjoy the advantage of a cabin, together with that of messing in the ward-room, he would no longer be liable to the numerous drawbacks to his improvement, which have been already pointed out, nor would he longer be deprived of that tranquillity of mind — so necessary to the success of his intellectual operations — to which he is at present a stranger in the midshipmen’s berth.’

On the whole, this tract is written in a sensible and temperate manner, and is worth the attention of those who are immediately interested in the discussion.

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The writer is indignant at the conduct of the French, and bestows epithets of abhorrence on Bonaparte : but, had he waited a little while, he might have improved his stanzas, and given a more suitable finish to the whole :

- ‘ Frenchmen ! we curse your very name,
Unblushing in your worthlessness,
Stamp’d with each varied brand of shame,
By word of utter faithlessness.
At once so cringing and so proud,
Base in distress, in triumph loud,
So fierce, yet abject — mean, though vain ;
Ne’er may degraded man bend to such yoke again !
- ‘ To-day Napoleon forced to fly,
With taunt and threat, and curse and scorn ;
God save King Louis ! — is the cry,
Home on triumphant shoulders borne.
To Peace ye pour the suppliant vow,
To meek Religion’s shrine ye bow,
Abjure stern Conquest’s red career,
And bend to Science’ voice with no unwilling ear.
- ‘ Yet now, poor hirelings of a day !
Weak changelings of a shallow hour !
Ye spurn a monarch’s righteous sway,
Invoke a despot back to power,
The sacred bonds of Peace disclaim,
And scoff Religion’s holy name,
And kneeling at Bellona’s car,
Bid weeping Science seek some happier shore afar.’

In deploring the temporary flight of Louis from his capital, the poet intimates that the King should have remained there at all events ; though we suppose that he is now of a different opinion. He does not seem to have anticipated the victory at Waterloo. Had he been able to look forwards, would he have penned this stanza ?

- ‘ Foul rebel ! did no tongue defy,
No arm thy desperate march oppose ?
And Louis, wert thou doom’d to fly,
’Mid coward friends and pitying foes ?
Oh ! better to have braved the strife,
The tyrant’s frown, th’ assassin’s knife,
Mournfully in royal state enthroned,
By lost, devoted race, and faithful peers around.’

—ry of this ode has merit, though it is far from faultless.

Fugitive Pieces in Verse and Prose. By William Drennan. Crown 8vo. 8s. Boards. Printed at Belfast, and London by Rees. 1815.

apology, “request of friends,” is not urged on this the motive for publication ; Dr. Drennan offering no apology for sending abroad his *Fugitive Pieces* from the press, and to give employment to a young printer who had just commenced

commenced business. He dedicates them to his wife, sisters, and children ; to the last of whom he recommends versifying, ‘ as at all periods of life an amiable and even useful recreation.’ From this recommendation of poetical composition by a parent to his children, we may clearly infer that Dr. D. is one of those poets who has been supremely blessed in his muse ; and, when a man thus writes *con amore*, he stands a fair chance, supposing him to be properly equipped, of blessing others. By the number of pieces in this collection, it will appear that the author has been an active volunteer in the corps of the Muses, and he seems not to have been overlooked by the ladies of the forked hill.

We quote a few specimens :

‘ VERSES FOR OLD IRISH MELODIES.

- ‘ If to a foreign clime I go,
What Henry feels will Emma know ;
My heart in all its trembling strings,
So tuned to hers alone,
That every breeze, delighted, brings
From hers a kindred tone :
And if to foreign clime he goes,
What Henry feels, his Emma knows.
 - ‘ Our hearts seem well tun’d harps, that show
All that true lovers wish to know ;
To every sorrow, every bliss,
An unison will swell ;
If on thy lips one vagrant kiss,
My tortured strings will tell —
Such pang may Henry never know,
If to a foreign clime he go !
 - ‘ Emma will share my joy and woe,
If to a foreign clime I go ;
Still shall I hear, though far we part,
The music of her mind,
And echoes soft from Emma’s heart
My wand’ring sense shall bind ;
Listen, — how plaintive, sad, and low,
When to a distant clime I go !
-
- ‘ “ There is a hopeless, bitter grief,
Which oft the feeling heart must prove ;
There is a pang that mocks relief ;
’Tis deep, consuming, secret love.”
 - ‘ No sigh is heard, nor seen a tear,
And strange to see a smile prevail !
But faint the smile, and insincere,
And o’er a face so deadly pale !
 - ‘ This fairy dream of life is o’er,
No visionary hope to save !
If Heaven’s mercy has in store,
O ! send her to an early grave !’

‘ TO IRELAND.

‘ My country! shall I mourn, or bless,
Thy tame and wretched happiness?

‘ ’Tis true! the vast Atlantic tide
Has scoop’d thy harbours deep, and wide,
Bold to protect, and prompt to save,
From fury of the western wave:
And Shannon points to Europe’s trade,
For that, his chain of lakes was made;
For that, he scorns to waste his store,
In channel of a subject-shore,
But courts the southern wind to bring
A world, upon its tepid wing.

‘ True! thy resplendent rivers run,
And safe beneath a temp’rate sun
Springs the young verdure of thy plain,
Nor dreads a torrid eastern reign.

‘ True! thou art blest, in Nature’s plan,
Nothing seems wanting here, but — man;
Man — to subdue, not serve the soil,
To win, and wear its golden spoil;
Man — conscious of an earth his own,
No savage biped, torpid, prone;
Living, to dog his brother brute,
And hung’ring for a lazy root,
Food for a soft, contented slave;
Not for the hardy and the brave.

‘ Had Nature been her enemy,
Ierne might be fierce and free.
To the stout heart, and iron hand,
Temp’rate each sky, and tame each land,
A climate and a soil less kind,
Had form’d a map of richer mind.
Now, a mere sterile swamp of soul,
Tho’ meadows spread, and rivers roll:
A nation of abortive men,
That dart — the tongue; and point — the pen.
And, at the back of Europe, hurl’d —
A base posterior of the world.

‘ In lap of Araby the blest,
Man lies with luxury oppress;
While spicy odours, blown around,
Enrich the air, and gems — the ground.
But thro’ the pathless, burning waste,
Man marches with his patient beast,
Braves the hot sun, and heaving sand,
And calls it free and happy land.

‘ Enough to make a desert known,
“Arms, and the man,” and sand, and stone!’

‘ VERSES TO A YOUNG LADY.

- ‘ Though fate for some more happy swain
That faultless form design’d,
You still may grant and I may gain,
Sweet wedlock with thy mind.
- ‘ Shall yon pure light to mortals giv’n,
Illumine ev’ry part;
And this still purer light of Heav’n
Bless but a single heart?
- ‘ The winter-sun, tho’ void of heat,
Still cheers the frozen pole;
O! in this winter of my fate,
At least illumine my soul.
- ‘ In converse soft, we’ll realize
Our pure connubial joys,
And as the fair ideas rise,
Call them our girls and boys.
- ‘ Or while you read, and melting feel
Soft pity’s artless stile,
I’ll watch the woe you half conceal,
Beneath a weeping smile.
- ‘ The sweets of sense were never made
Pure spirit to command:
The flow’ret droops — its colours fade,
Ev’n in the gath’rer’s hand.
- ‘ But Virtue, like some hallow’d tree,
Springs from a stronger root;
And bears at once, fair type of thee!
The blossom and the fruit.
- ‘ Fleeting the beauty, which ensures
The love to sense confin’d:
Eternal, as itself, endures
The marriage of the mind.’

Dr. D. feels for his country, and his mind is imbued with the soundest political principles, which he displays in the prose-pieces that compose the remainder of the volume. We meet here with a translation of Cicero’s First Oration against Catiline; of a Letter from Marcus Brutus to Cicero, illustrative of the men and the times; an intended Defence, on a Trial for Sedition, 1794; and a Protest against an Union between Great Britain and Ireland. The last but one of these pieces will call to the minds of our readers the political notoriety of the author in our sister-kingdom, twenty years ago.

E D U C A T I O N.

Art. 21. *The Expeditious Arithmetician; or Preceptor’s Arithmetical Class Book; containing Six separate Sets of Original Questions, &c.* By B. Danby and J. Leng, Hull. 1800. 7 Parts. 1s. each. Crosby and Co. &c.

It is stated in the title that this publication is intended to facilitate the business of teaching the leading rules of arithmetic, by furnishing the master of a school with a great variety of examples in addition, subtraction, multiplication, division both simple and compound, and reduction.

The authors, with a labour which indicates more industry than talent, have formed *two thousand two hundred* questions in these five rules only, and have so contrived them that the answer is shewn in the question without the knowlege of the pupil. The work will probably on this account be acceptable to the masters of some country-schools, where it is commonly necessary to take a very large number of pupils, in order to compensate for the very inadequate sum that is received for each. In such seminaries, the tuition must be mechanically conducted, and for that purpose this collection of questions and answers will be convenient; though we should hope that it is not intended to make a pupil go over all the examples that it contains. One-twentieth part of them will probably be sufficient for any boy of moderate talents.

HISTORY.

Art. 22. *Studies in History*; containing the History of Rome; &c. &c. By Thomas Morell. Vol. II. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Co. 1815.

In reviewing the former volume of these *Studies*, (see our last Number, July, p. 328.) we complained of an undue reliance on Rollin; whose historical mistakes are considerable, in consequence of his undervaluing Herodotus, and ranking the *Cyropædia* of Xenophon among true narrations: but we did justice to that purity of style and purpose, to that industrious morality and pious tendency, which pervade the pages of the present author.

He now undertakes the history of Rome. Something of credulity is again apparent, in relating the first five hundred years of the Roman annals. The complete uncertainty of all that respects that period has been demonstrated by M. de Beaufort. It forms the subject of the first book. — The second book continues the Roman history from the time of Camillus to the death of Julius Cæsar. — The third and concluding book carries on the history of the emperors from Augustus to Constantine.

In the form of narration, no other change is visible than that, as the quantity of known historic fact is more abundant, the chapters allotted to it are longer, and the intervening pious reflections are shorter. We remain of opinion that it would be better wholly to omit them; they disappoint the memory, by breaking the continuity of the narration; and they carry, as it were, the pulpit into the news-room. The effect on the reader is as if Crevier's *Lives of the Emperors* had been interleaved with manuscript sermons, and the volume printed off as one uninterrupted composition.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *Observations on the Hypothesis that the Evangelists made Use of written Documents, in the Composition of their Gospels.* 8vo. pp. 53. Mawman. 1815.

It appears from the introduction to St. Luke's narrative, that, previously to his undertaking, several accounts of the life of our Saviour were in circulation; and it is not improbable that some of these accounts came from the pens of persons who had been eye-witnesses and ministers of the word. On this ground, we see nothing improbable in the position of Dr. Marsh respecting the origin of the first three canonical Gospels; and the verbal harmony which he points out is strongly in favour of his hypothesis of the existence of a common document, to which the first three evangelists had recourse. The author of these Observations, however, opposes Dr. Marsh's ideas; undertaking to shew 'that the Evangelists did not make use of written documents; that, though the appearances are such as may, *in general*, be supposed to indicate a written original, of which they made frequent use; yet that on a more minute examination of their writings, such peculiarities may be observed in them as render the supposition highly improbable, if not wholly untenable.'

The admission, that appearances are *in general* favourable to Dr. Marsh's hypothesis, is fatal to this writer's objections, which seem to us very feebly supported. We may add that the supposition of original transcripts, for the use of the church in its infant state, is more probable than this observer's notion that 'the Gospels of Mark and Luke received their peculiar character from the preaching of St. Paul.' The writer might employ his pen to some purpose in reconciling the character and style of St. John's Gospel with that of the preceding three.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 24. *An Authentic Account of the late Mr. Whitbread: consisting of Facts and Anecdotes relating to his latter Days and Death, developing the Causes which led to that deplorable Event. With the genuine Report of the Inquest, now first published. — Taken in Short-hand by Francis Phippen, the only Reporter present at the Sitting of the Inquest held in Mr. Whitbread's House. Including a brief Memoir of his Life. Illustrated by a Fac-simile Engraving of his Hand-writing, and Autograph, from a Document in the Possession of the Publisher.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hone.

The title of this pamphlet is rather too high-sounding and elaborate for the materials which compose it: but still a variety of particulars will here be found, hastily thrown together, which may be acceptable records concerning the truly melancholy event and truly respectable man which are the subjects of the compilation. The circumstances of Drury-lane Theatre, which concern seems indeed to have been the principal source of the direful catastrophe, are explained in some detail among the 'Causes which led to Mr. W.'s death.'

Art. 25. *Tributes of the Public Press to the Memory of the late Mr. Whitbread: being the Memorials and Characters of that eminent Man, which have appeared in the different Journals since his lamented Death.* 8vo. 1s. Hone.

Mr. Whitbread was so sturdy, so vigilant, and so persevering in his principles and conduct as a British senator, that he could neither
expect

expect nor desire so to perform his duty without the strenuous opposition of his enemies in political system. It is, however, equally reputable to him and them that, on the lamentable occasion of his death, a fair tribute to his merits has been paid by all parties; Lord Castlereagh only being wanting, to do that honour to his indefatigable adversary which the good breeding and fairness of that noble diplomatist would have made him willing to offer.—In the present collection of extracts, the *Morning Chronicle* stands first; and from that paper a warm and a sedulous eulogium would be expected. From its *Antipodes*, however, the *Morning Post*, less praise certainly and perhaps less justice were to be anticipated; and Mr. W.'s friends may be contented if, in that journal, it was allowed that he was 'a man of a vigorous mind, generally informed, devoted to business, and zealous in all his pursuits:'—that 'the death of few men would have occasioned so large a blank in our parliamentary history, in the relations of private life, and in all the honourable situations of the magistrate, country-gentleman, and active member of society.' *The Times*, *The British Press*, *The Day*, *The Statesman*, and *The Examiner*, are conspicuous for the liberality and the ability with which they treat the melancholy subject: but *The Sentinel*, a Dublin paper, displays a degree of force and of talent in its delineation of Mr. W., (though we may differ from it in some points,) which induces us to copy the whole portrait, more especially as it probably has not met the eyes of many of our readers on this side of the Bristol Channel:

'He was not the leader of the Opposition-party, but he was more—he was a party in himself. He attacked the ministry without the Opposition—they might follow if they would—they often refused to follow him, but they never did so without loss of character. He was worth all the Opposition put together; he was worth more—

—— "They and all their talents
Could not make up the tithe of him."

'He had not all the talents of Mr. Fox, but he had all his virtues and none of his weaknesses. He learned patriotism from Fox, and he could have taught him patriotism. He improved on the lesson. He outdid his master. He did not equal Fox in talents, but he excelled him in acquirements: for, unlike Fox, he never was a man of pleasure, and was always a man of application. Perhaps Fox had more learning, but certainly Whitbread had more information. He despised that principle laid down by Burke, that a man should sacrifice, or, at least, suppress his own opinion when it differed from that of his party. Whitbread maintained, that in no case whatever should a man sacrifice or suppress his own opinion; that he should regulate his own actions, not by the vote of any set of men, but by the light of his own understanding; that he should support his party so long as he agreed with them, and act for himself when his party would not support him. Burke thought that the Opposition should always brigade together in their opposition to a ministry. Whitbread thought that they should brigade together when they agreed together; and that when they could not agree, the members should act independently. Burke's mode was suited for the attainment of
power;

power ; that of Whitbread for restraining it. Burke thought that, in the discipline of a regular opposition, the opinions of individuals should be thrown into a common stock : that the heads of the parties should decide on operations, and the leader should conduct them.

‘ Whitbread thought that an independent senator should acknowledge no superior but the law, and that no man, on any occasion, should put his understanding into commission.

‘ The principle of Burke was adopted by Fox, and acted on by the Whigs. Whitbread was neither a Whig nor a Burdettite ; he acknowledged all the Whig principles, but not the Whig party. He acknowledged most of the Burdettite principles, but not the Burdettite party. He differed from the Whigs and Burdett, because he was a friend to a reformed and irresponsible parliament. He was not an orator, but, as a speaker, he was much better than an orator. He was more anxious about what should be said, than how it should be said. Intent upon facts, he was indifferent to phrases ; and engrossed with the subject, he rejected ornament. He was one of the few among the members of the Opposition, who might be called “ a man of business,” and yet he was one of the few who declined place when his friends came into power. No man was more regular in his attendance to his official duties, than Mr. Whitbread was to his parliamentary ones. The Speaker receives 4000*l.* a year for discharging his duties in parliament : at three o’clock in the day, or three o’clock in the morning, he could see Mr. Whitbread on his left hand, with Mr. Wynne and Mr. Abercrombie at his side. His habit of prompt and ready speaking made him an efficient member of parliament. The thought was expressed as it sprung from the mind, in such language as the moment could supply ; sometimes the expression was of course inelegant, but often happy ; always strong, apt, suitable, and impressive.

‘ It was the rule of Pythagoras, that seven years devoted to contemplation, and spent in silence, was a necessary preparative to the study of wisdom. Mr. Whitbread, as a senator, imposed on himself a more protracted and rigorous discipline. Mr. Whitbread sat fourteen years in parliament, a regular and attentive member, before he considered it becoming, or himself qualified, to hold the attention of the House of Commons. Indeed, it was not until the trial of Lord Melville that he became known to the public as a public man, and since that occasion his public exertions have never been interrupted.

‘ Whilst Pitt and Fox contended together,

“ Like fabled gods whose mighty war
Shook realms and nations in its jar,”

Whitbread, though an anxious, was a silent observer ; and the modesty which accompanies real merit, restrained his great powers from the service of the country. It was not until the powers of Fox were in the wane that he consented to assume the character for which he subsequently proved himself so well qualified.

‘ The moral influence of his presence in that house must have been considerable on the actions of any ministry. The minister found himself at every movement in the hearing and under the eye of an intelligent, indefatigable, ardent, investigating, honest statesman, ready and capable to detect and expose.

“ Had

“ Had he but lived in spite of power,
 A watchman on the lonely tower,
 His thrilling trump had roused the land,
 When fraud or danger was at hand ;
 By it, as by the beacon-light,
 The pilot should keep course aright.
 Now is the stately column broke,
 The beacon-light is quenched in smoke,
 The trumpet’s silver sound is still,
 The warder silent on the hill !”

Altogether, we may agree with the editor of these memorials that ‘ they are for the most part elegant and eloquent compositions, liberally and proudly estimating Mr. W.’s talents and virtues ; and being the spontaneous and grateful tributes of the Public Press, they are presented to the world in an embodied form, as a monument alike worthy of the man and of the country which he honoured and adorned.’ — A monument still *more* worthy of both, however, will, we hope and doubt not, be erected elsewhere and by other hands.

Art. 26. *On the Slave Trade, and on the Slavery of the Blacks and of the Whites.* By a Friend of Men of all Colours. Translated from the original French of M. Gregoire, formerly Bishop of Blois. To which are annexed prefatory Observations and Notes ; by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 89. 3s. 6d. Conder. 1815.

Overshadowed with misery as the world has always been, in consequence of the bad principles and bad passions of men, the religious and reflecting few have perceived, or thought that they perceived, a prospect of the moral amelioration of mankind, and have encouraged the hope that the triumph of evil would not be eternal : — but how long is this triumph to last ? When will the dilatory kingdom of truth and virtue come ! We seem to be as far from it as our forefathers, and to our children’s children it will probably appear equally remote. Is the passion for military glory less ardent among the moderns than among the antients ; and are the carnal passions less active, or the lust of gain less predominant ? Though we profess to rejoice in the coming of the Son of God, who preached “ peace on earth and good will towards men,” yet wars, intolerance, and slavery prevail ; Christian governments are military ; all the meek and tranquil virtues are disregarded ; reputation must be sought “ in the cannon’s mouth,” and riches obtained *per fas et nefas*. Under this soul-dejecting state of things, wise and amiable writers take up the pen to inculcate truth, virtue, and humanity, on people who are actuated merely by pride, avarice, ambition, and selfishness. At the mention of slavery, they ought at once to disclaim the principle and the practice ; at the charge of intolerance and persecution, they should display a virtuous indignation : yet, for the sake of promoting the colonial system, some will attempt to justify the former, and, as a means of fencing establishments, others will vindicate the latter.

M. Gregoire opposes himself to both these classes of writers ; he strongly reprobates the Slave-Trade, emphatically so called, and the policy of guilty Europe in meditating its partial continuance ; and he then passes, by no very close concatenation of ideas, to the in-

justice of the British Government towards the Catholics of Ireland, who, on account of their religious principles, are curtailed of their civil privileges. He accuses our rulers of great inconsistency, when they seem desirous of extending liberty to the Africans and yet wish to hold their Catholic fellow-subjects in slavery. On the debasing and demoralizing effects of slavery, he presents a just statement: but we cannot agree with him in applying this term to the Catholics of Ireland; who, though not completely emancipated, are far from being slaves. We think that his sentiments relative to the immoral operation of the war-system deserve general attention; and we are sorry to say that his assertion is too true, when he observes that 'the European character requires to be newly *attempered*; — that an ill-directed civilization has left it in possession of all the passion of military valour, at the expence of civil courage.'

"Princes (said Frederick, called the Great,) stake provinces, and men are the counters they pay with." Some proper strictures are offered on this royal remark, and M. Gregoire adds:

'When we contemplate the nature of man, we cannot but perceive a vast distance between what he is, and what he might become. What advances might be made in agriculture, in industry, in science, in education, if only a tenth part were devoted to these objects, of what is expended in ruinous wars, vain-glorious pageantries, and wasteful luxury? There are, perhaps, in France, two hundred towns, in which, during the last fifteen years, the entertainment of princes, theatrical decorations, triumphal arches, and *fetes*, have cost the nation more than would have sufficed to establish schools, to maintain the poor, and to endow the hospitals, in those very places. Ah! if the rulers of nations did but know their true glory and their real interests, how would they exert themselves in order to arouse their people to all that is noble, and pure, and sublime!'

To the war-system, this writer attributes what he terms the slavery of the whites. Let him speak on this subject:

'The art of enslaving and tormenting men, which has been brought to such perfection, assumes an infinite diversity of forms; all of which may, however, be classed under the denominations of the *Slave Trade*, and *Slavery*. What other name can be given to the sale of those Hessian regiments, whose touching farewells were re-iterated by the echoes of America?

'When, in order to pour forth all the plagues of human nature upon the shores of the Ebro, the Elbe, and the Vistula, millions of Frenchmen, scarcely arrived at manhood, were torn from the bosom of their disconsolate families; when the frenzy of conquest demanded, and cowardice sanctioned, those multiplied conscriptions which have cost such torrents of tears and of blood; when, in order to make their court to the monarch, some of the prefects raised a double and even a triple contingent; — it was the Slave Trade under another name.'

With such boldness is this pamphlet written, that we are surprised that its appearance was permitted in France; yet we find that it was published there a short time before the return of Bonaparte from Elba. We thank the translator for offering it to the English reader, and for the judicious remarks with which he has introduced it.

Art. 27. *Populorum et Urbium, &c.; i.e.* Selections from Brass Grecian Coins of Nations and Cities; described, and illustrated with Plates, by Edward Harwood. With a general Index of Free and Imperial Cities, recorded on their respective Coins, Golden, Silver, or Brass, with the Rarity of each designated. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. Johnson and Co.

This very handsome specimen of printing and engraving contains also a most classical and satisfactory account of what it undertakes to describe. The title-page (which, in our translation, we have amplified from the longer one prefixed to the Index,) exhibits a full outline of the contents of the work. An address to the reader is also given, parts of which we shall present in English, and shall then (as by the nature of the publication we are obviously compelled) leave that reader to become acquainted in person with the rest of the volume; which would be quite unintelligible without the plates which it describes.

Some of the coins here exhibited, the author contends, are neither to be found in the cabinets of the curious, nor are even described in the writings of learned medalists. Others were never before published, or are remarkable, in their present introduction to the public, for some valuable variety. Some, indeed, are confessedly republications, but throw a strong light on this important department of antiquarian research, and are adduced according to the best examples of writers on medals. A list of cities, the coins of which the author had obtained (with some unique specimens of the die of free cities) subsequently to the commencement of the printing of his General Index, is inserted in the address to the reader. — We have now mentioned the principal features of the volume; and for the reasons above given we shall here close our brief notice of it, by recommending it to the classical and antiquarian student.

Art. 28. *The Accidents of Human Life:* with Hints for their Prevention, or the Removal of their Consequences. By Newton Bosworth. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Lackington and Co.

In the preface, we have the following account of the object of this work:

‘The design of this little volume is to do something towards the removal of the ignorance complained of, by communicating to general readers, and especially to young persons, such information as I have been able to collect on the subject of bodily accidents in general, whether arising from fire, water, journeying, heat, cold, amusements, violent exertion, or other cause, together with the best methods I could think, or hear, or read of, for avoiding those accidents, and alleviating or removing their consequences.’

Mr. Bosworth, it appears, is engaged in the instruction of youth, and the information was conveyed in the form of addresses to his pupils. The number of these addresses is ten; the first is introductory; the four next are on the accidents from fire; then come three on the accidents from water; and they conclude with accidents at play, and in travelling. A specimen of the author’s manner of writing may be given from the introductory address:

‘If you have paid much attention to what you have seen and heard, it is likely that you have noticed or heard some other person
remark,

remark, how much the danger on some occasions has been increased by the awkwardness or ignorance of those who have given their assistance. In the happening of a fire, for instance, how much confusion is produced, how much time is lost, and how much good is prevented, by the want of knowing how to act. People running in one another's way, and spilling upon themselves or their neighbours the water which ought to supply the engine; some clamouring for one thing, and some for another; till, having at length succeeded in putting out the flames, they find, that, had they employed other methods, or thought of something at the time, which occurred to them afterwards, they would have extinguished the fire more effectually, with less fatigue, less danger, and less loss.*

In the sections on fire, the first observations are principally on the means of escaping from houses on fire; and the remarks may be read by all persons with advantage, and be instrumental in the preservation of life and the prevention of serious accidents. The directions may seem minute, but, unless they were so, they would be of little value; and it is impossible that the mind can be too well prepared for an emergency, in which nothing should occur that can agitate, or produce the slightest indecision. In this, as in other parts of his work, Mr. B. gives plates of the principal machines that have been invented for escaping the dangers of fire and other serious accidents, and he describes, in a very perspicuous manner, their principles and the method of employing them.

In the addresses on the accidents from water, the author enters largely into the account of the method of recovering persons apparently drowned; and he gives an account of the life-boat, and the other inventions for preserving persons in shipwrecks. We shall make one more quotation.

‘If, however, after all your care, you should be so unfortunate as to fall into the water, or by any other means get out of your depth, how ought you to act? If you could swim, you would undoubtedly make for the shore as fast as possible, or, at least, keep yourself from sinking until some one came to your assistance, or perhaps until you reached a boat. One of these you might do, if no impediment from weeds or the cramp* prevented you. But what, if you could not swim? Let us hear old Milson on the subject. If you wish to drown yourself, “I’ll tell you,” says he, “how to” do it “presently. — Kick and splash about as violently as you can, and you’ll presently sink. On the contrary, if, impressed with the idea that you are lighter than the water, you avoid all violent action, and calmly and steadily strive to refrain from drawing in your breath whilst under the water, and to keep your head raised as much as you can, and gently but constantly move your hands and feet in a proper direction, there may be a great probability of your keeping afloat until some aid arrives.” I know it is difficult to have what is called presence of

* * For the cure of the cramp, when swimming, Dr. Franklin recommends a vigorous and violent shock of the part affected, by suddenly and forcibly stretching out the leg, which should be drawn out of the water into the air if possible.’

mind on such occasions as these, and that it is the want of this very quality which increases the danger tenfold, and often renders escape impossible where, otherwise, it would be easy; but yet, on the other hand, it is certain that calmness without knowledge is of no use whatever, and therefore a useful hint, if treasured up in the mind, may occur to it at the moment it is wanted, and prove of the most essential benefit.'

We cannot but warmly praise the design of this little publication, and applaud the mode in which it is executed.

Art. 29. *A New Picture of Paris; or the Stranger's Guide to the French Metropolis*; accurately describing the public Establishments, remarkable Edifices, Places of Amusement, and every other Object worthy of Attention. Also, a correct List of the Paris Journals, Periodical Publications, Libraries, and Literary Institutions. To which is added, a Description of the Environs of Paris, with correct Maps, and an accurate Plan of the City. New Edition, enlarged and improved. By Edward Planta, Esq. 12mo. pp. 258. 6s. 6d. bound. Leigh.

To those of our countrymen who are bent on a visit to the capital of Louis XVIIIth's distracted dominions, this little volume will be a very useful pocket-companion. It minutely details all those particulars which a person, just setting out on his first trip to Paris, must wish to know; such as the different routes and packet-boats, expences of conveyance, the methods of obtaining passports, recommendations, and cash, the value of French coins, the different kinds of carriages, the charges of posting in France, the laws relative to it, the expence of living on the road, &c.; and these hints are succeeded by some general remarks on the country and the people.

Various information is then given to the traveller on his arrival in the French metropolis, by attention to which he may promote his comfort and save his purse. A tolerably fair sketch is executed of the character and manners of the Parisians, and a chapter is devoted to the history and present state of Paris; then follow its *Arrondissements*, — *Palaces*, (among which is reckoned *Palais des Termes*, now a cooper's shop, though once inhabited by Roman emperors, and particularly by Julian the Apostate, who is said to have built it about the year 375,) — *Museums**, — *Cabinets*, — *Libraries*, — *Literary Societies*, — *Public Schools and Charitable Institutions*, — *Manufactories*, — *Theatres*, — *Gardens and Public Walks*, — *Coffee and Eating-houses*, — *Baths*, — *Hackney-coaches*, — *Fountains*, — *Bridges*, — *Prisons*, — *Squares and Markets*, — *Churches*, — *Triumphal Arches*; with a list of the bankers, physicians, and principal tradesmen of Paris; and also a table to assist the stranger in calculating the value of French money.

* Of these, *Le Musée Central des Arts* stands the most conspicuous, and its late treasures are generally enumerated: but the second capture of Paris has dismantled this grand repository of the arts, and devoted the pictures and statues of which it was composed to their original stations. How vain, then, was the boast of the French, that Fate had destined them for ever to remain in their capital!

In short, Mr. Planta has given *multum in parvo*; furnishing a *vade mecum* which must be found very acceptable: though recent changes will prevent his information from being universally accurate.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 30. Preached in the Parish Church of Chiswick, Middlesex, July 30. 1815, previous to a Collection for the Relief of the Sufferers in the late glorious Victory of Waterloo, By the Rev. T. F. Bowerbank, A.M. Vicar. Published at the general Request of the Inhabitants. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Whittingham and Arliss.

Benevolence towards those who have gloriously suffered in the cause of their country is neatly and ably pleaded in this well-written discourse. If the preacher makes a little digression from his direct object in descanting on the merits of the war itself, which he eulogizes in its principles *ab initio*, and which he views with high satisfaction *usque ad finem*, the deviation is so natural as to be pardonable.—A few expressions might have been improved by revision: such as the term ‘disgrace of humanity’—applied to Bonaparte; that word in its general acceptation being indicative of a *contempt* which is surely not appropriate in this case;—and the phrase, ‘under the blasphemous name of philosophy,’ wants a note to explain and defend it, or a *second edition* to cancel it. A man may possibly blaspheme under the mask or name of philosophy: but how that term itself can be blasphemous, we know not.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Kerus expresses his regret that, in our Review (last Number, p. 295.) of the Memoirs of Lady Hamilton, ‘whose character was far from being what it ought to have been, no mention was made of Sir W. H.’s *first* lady, who was an accomplished, virtuous, and most amiable woman.’ We must remind our Correspondent, however, that the object of the work and of our article being the life of the second Lady H. only, the character or even the existence of a preceding wife of Sir William was not a point of necessary attention; and, accordingly, it was not mentioned by the writer of the Memoirs.

Junius is not satisfied because we would not allow *a part* to stand for *the whole*: but, in our judgment, whether the mind or the body is to be fed, a complete definition or a good meal will be preferable to half of either.

* * The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published on the second of October, with the Number for September.



THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
SEVENTY-SEVENTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Recherches sur les Mœurs des Fourmis, &c.; i. e. Res-
searches into the Manners of Indigenous Ants.* By P. HUBER,
Member of the Natural History and Physical Societies of Geneva,
&c. 8vo. pp. 344. Paris and Geneva.

WE have somewhere seen it remarked that many of our kind,
from a perverted love of the marvellous, dedicate whole
hours and days to the tales of vagrant or licentious fiction,
when, in the annals of creatures which they are apt to regard
with contempt, they might peruse the wonderful recitals of
truth and nature, and imbibe instruction and virtue, at the
same time that they fully gratified their propensity for survey-
ing scenes of astonishment and delight. The study of ento-
mology imparts the charm of lively interest to every walk in
the garden, the forest, or the field; since every tree, plant, leaf,
or flower is animated; and the eye is agreeably arrested by the
forms, colours, or proceedings of their tiny inhabitants. The
observation of one fact leads to the discovery of others; and a
common maggot, or caterpillar, attracts our notice when we
know the particular kind of butterfly, or winged insect, that
is destined to issue from it. Hence even the species most
within our reach, and most familiar to our observation, may
prove the fertile sources of entertaining and useful inquiry;
and hence *Reaumur*, whose patience, penetration, and felicity
of research are still unrivalled, was uniformly more solicitous

to ascertain the habits and economy of insects already known; than to multiply definitions and catalogues. The memoirs of that enticing master are a transcript of his mental processes; a beautiful record of the direction of intellect in the path of minute but inviting and profitable investigation. From the spirit of his precepts and example, the student may be enabled to form a temperate and unbiassed estimate of those resources of instinct and understanding which have been allotted to this class of animals; to reduce, on the one hand, the extravagant colouring of fancy; to enlighten, on the other, with the pencil of truth, the chastened but attractive tints of nature; to confute the tales of ignorance and superstition; and to speculate with discretion and sobriety on those final causes, the knowledge of which can so seldom be attained by the beings of a day,—the creatures of want, imperfection, and error.

Under the guidance, we presume, of such impressions, the diligent and observant author of the present volume penned the results of a series of investigations, of which we shall now lay before our readers a very condensed analysis.

The title, as we learn from the preface, is not to be interpreted in all its latitude, but applies only to such species of ants, indigenous to the environs of Geneva, as were subjected to observation and experiment. In stating his remarks on the habits and economy of these insects, M. HUBER has been regulated rather by the order in which the various steps of his inquiries were directed, than by any systematic regard to scientific arrangement; and, in the selection of his details, he has been more desirous of confuting ancient errors, and presenting his readers with new and important facts, than of indulging in minute and critical discussions on the structure and external characters of the different species. Having sketched, in his introduction, an outline of the most recent and accurate definitions of the criteria of the genus, and adverted to the imperfect observations of *Leuwenhoek*, *Swammerdam*, *Linnaeus*, *Groffroy*, *Bonnet*, and *Latreille*, relative to the history of this race of insects, he enters on the more immediate objects of his investigations, and begins with a review of their architectural labours.

It is obvious that the degree of intelligence manifested by different kinds of ants, in the construction of their habitations, has been over-rated by some writers, and very inadequately appreciated by others. The extent of these habitations generally presents a remarkable contrast to the diminutive size of the builders; and the fabric is, for the most part, composed of earth, or of leaves, or blades of grass, collected at random, or of the trunk of a tree, variously excavated. Individuals of

the fawn-coloured species raise their mansions in the form of hillocks, which may often be observed in the forests of Europe, or along the sides of hedges, and in meadows. The upper portion, or cover, exhibits a conical dome, and the under part reaches to a greater or less depth beneath the surface of the soil. Lanes and alleys, skilfully directed, form communications from the top to the interior of the building, multiplied according to the extent and population of the dwelling, and affording free egress to the numerous labourers, which are more addicted than those of other species to the open air. The materials to which they have recourse, in forming these curious abodes, are very various; consisting of minute morsels of vegetable stalks, splinters of wood, small pebbles, leaves, and almost every thing within their reach that can contribute to the elevation of the structure; not excepting moths, small shells, grains of wheat, oats, barley, &c. Towards evening, these sagacious and active workers close the doors of their common residence by wooden bars, laid across one another, and covered with leaves. Most of the society retire under cover before the last openings are shut, and a few remain without, or behind the gates, to act as centinels; while the others betake themselves to rest, or to their different occupations, in perfect security. The avenues are re-opened in the morning, if the weather proves fair, but continue barricaded during rain. If the morning be cloudy, they are only partially opened; and, when rain begins, the mouth of every passage is again carefully blocked up.

Under the designation of *mason-ants*, are included those species which construct their habitation of earth alone. To this division belongs the *brown* sort, one of the smallest of the tribe, but one of the most conspicuous for the regularity and perfection of its work.

‘ This ant fashions its nest in stories of four or five lines in height, of which the floors exceed not half a line in thickness, and are of such a fine-grained texture that the surface of the internal walls appears very smooth. These stories are not horizontal, but follow the slope of the nest, so that the uppermost covers all the others; the immediately succeeding covers all those that are under it; and so, in succession, to the ground-floor, which communicates with the subterraneous lodgings. They are not, however, always arranged with the same regularity, because the ants do not uniformly adhere to an invariable plan: nature, on the contrary, seems to have left them a considerable degree of latitude in this respect, and allowed them the free choice of modifications, according to circumstances: but, however whimsical their masonry may appear, we always find it executed on the principle of concentric stories.

‘ If we examine each story separately, we perceive cavities, carefully disposed in the form of halls, lodgements more contracted, and

lengthened galleries, which communicate among them. The vaults of the most spacious apartments are supported by small columns, very slender walls, or by real buttresses. We moreover discover cells that have but one entry, the opening of some of which corresponds to the lower story. Again, we may remark very wide spaces, perforated in all directions, and forming, as it were, a public square, in which all the streets terminate. Such is nearly the style in which the habitations of these ants are constructed. On opening them, we find the cells and larger rooms filled with adult ants: but their nymphs are always observed to be grouped in the smaller apartments, and nearer to or more remote from the surface, according to the time of day and the temperature; the ants being endued with great sensibility to the latter, and seeming to know the degree of heat which is suited to their young.

‘The nest sometimes contains more than twenty stories in its upper division, and at least as many under ground. How many gradations of heat does not such a distribution admit, and what facility do not the ants thus provide for regulating its temperature? When the intensity of the sun-beams renders their upper apartments uncomfortably hot, they retire, with their young, to the bottom of the nest. In like manner, when the ground-floor becomes uninhabitable, during the rains, the ants of this species transport every object of their care into the more elevated stories, and there they are found assembled with their nymphs and their eggs, when their subterranean retreats are inundated.’

These brown ants, unlike the fawn-coloured, are often at work during the night, and thus probably gave rise to the opinion of the ancients, that ants in general are busily employed at night, at the time of full moon. This species likewise avails itself of wet weather to soften and mould the little masses of earth of which their dwelling is constructed; placing walls and pillars at due distances, and thus astonishing the observer by the skilful and judicious distribution of their materials. When the workers are numerous, an entire story will sometimes be completed in seven or eight hours; and the rain, if not excessive, instead of washing away the recent portions of the fabric, only contributes to smooth and consolidate them. When the cessation of rain, accompanied by drought, prevents the requisite coherence of the particles of their mortar, and thus arrests their labours before a story is completed, they demolish the part of it which they had raised, and spread the rubbish over the adjacent tire. Thus they are obviously aware that moisture tempers their mortar, and that the sun and wind impart to it the requisite hardness. By dipping a brush in water, and passing his fingers along the hairs, M. HUBER directed an artificial shower on one of the nests, when his little masons eagerly issued forth, and fell to work. It is chiefly in spring that they construct their nests; and even the darkness of night does not

suspend their operations; freshly built stories having been observed in the morning. It is likewise worthy of remark that the earth which is scooped out, in the formation of the subterranean lodgings, is employed in the structure of the upper parts of the common dwelling.

Though the *black-cinereous* species of ants, which also use moistened earth in the construction of their nests, manifest less nicety and regularity in their architectural operations, yet their various proceedings are more distinctly traceable, because every individual seems to act an independent part, avails itself of existing circumstances, and, if it should fail in maintaining the requisite elevation or level, allows one of its more sagacious fellow-citizens to repair the imperfection. They have no chisel but their teeth, no compass but their antennæ, and no trowel but their fore-feet; by means of which, and in the most surprising manner, they are enabled to give consistency and solidity to their wetted earth.

Among those sorts which excavate their lodging in wood, the *fuliginous* is one of the most remarkable: its retreat being formed in the interior of a tree, and consisting of innumerable stories, more or less horizontal; of which the floors and ceilings, at the distance of five or six lines from one another, are as thin as a card, supported sometimes by vertical partitions, and sometimes by a multitude of small light columns, the whole labyrinth being of a black and smoaky hue; a circumstance which is not easily to be explained. However multiplied the compartments and corridors of this curious structure may be, they are all effected by the industry of these fuliginous ants, which conduct their labours in obscurity, and persist in shunning observation. When their operations are extended down to the principal roots, the workmanship in the latter appears to be more irregular, but also more delicate, than in the trunk of the tree.

The *red* ants, again, form similar excavations in wood, though on a smaller scale, and without affecting the colour of the timber: but they are also capable of building on the ground, like the mason-tribes.

The *Ethiopians*, so denominated from their extremely black hue, form large cells, and long galleries, in the oldest trees: but their workmanship is much more rude than that of the fuliginous sort. They shew, however, singular dexterity in converting saw-dust, or the powder of decayed timber, to various useful purposes; such as caulking the bottom of their cells, closing superfluous passages, and dividing, by partitions, the more spacious portions of their labyrinths. In short, no two species, as far as observation has been hitherto carried,

exhibit the same mode and style of architecture; and a comparative view of the different varieties of structure presents, at once, many striking coincidences and dissimilarities.

All ants betray the utmost anxiety for the protection and well-being of their eggs and nymphs; carefully removing them from one quarter of the common receptacle to another, according as circumstances require, and withdrawing them from exposure to too much cold, or heat, and from light. Hence their tender treatment of their progeny has been very imperfectly contemplated, and very erroneously recorded. After various fruitless attempts, M. HUBER, by means of an apparatus which is particularly described, at length succeeded in watching this important part of their economy; and he thus depicts the scene which was exhibited, on opening the shutter of one of his glazed hives:

‘ Here are nymphs, heaped by hundreds, in roomy cells; there, groups of larvæ are surrounded by labourers; farther on, we perceive an accumulation of eggs; in another quarter, some labourers appear to be occupied in following an ant much larger than the others; this is the mother, or at least one of the females; for there are always several of them in each hive: she lays as she walks along; and the guardians by whom she is surrounded take up her eggs, or lay hold of them at the very moment of their extrusion. They then gather them together, and convey them, in small parcels, to their mouth; on near inspection, they are observed to turn and return them incessantly with their tongue; it should even seem that they make them pass, one by one, between their teeth, and that all these eggs are constantly wetted. Such was the first spectacle which my glazed hive presented to me.

‘ As these eggs particularly fixed my attention, I remarked that they all differed in respect of dimension, shade of colour, and form; the smallest being white, opake, and cylindrical; the largest, transparent, and slightly arched at their extremities; and those of an intermediate size, only semi-transparent. On viewing these last, in broad day, I noticed within them a sort of white cloud, which appeared more or less elongated; in some, I could discern only a transparent point at the upper extremity; in others, a clear band, above and beneath the little cloud, was visible; the largest, when examined, betrayed a single opake and whitish point within: while some, again, through their whole extent, presented a perfect limpidness, in which well defined rings were already obvious. Happening to fix my attention on these last, I saw the egg begin to open, its outer case give way, and the larva appear in its stead. Having compared the eggs just described with those recently laid, I had constantly found the latter of a milky whiteness, completely opake, and smaller by one half: so that I could no longer doubt that ants’ eggs undergo a very sensible growth; and that, in lengthening, they become transparent, and already assume the form of the maggot, which is always very much

much arched. To confirm the truth of these facts, I examined the eggs with the microscope, measured them, and separated them from one another; and from the longest alone did the maggots proceed in my presence.

‘When I removed them from the labourers before they had acquired all their length and transparency, they became dry and unprolific. Does the whole secret of their preservation, then, depend on the care with which the labourers make them pass into their mouth? Can these eggs have need of this moisture, and do they absorb a portion of it, to afford nourishment to the little worm which they contain? This supposition appears to me very probable.’

The author then proceeds to mention some instances of the growth of insect-eggs, particularly those of some species of *cinips* and *tenthredo*, as quoted by *Reaumur* and *Vallisnieri*.

At the end of fifteen days, the larva issues from its cell, presenting a transparent body, consisting of a head and rings, without any apparent rudiments of feet, or antennæ. In this state, they are guarded, fed, and cherished by the labourers; some of whom protect them in a sort of erect and menacing attitude, while their fellow-sentinels enjoy repose, and others clear away all unnecessary obstructions. When the sun-beams give the signal for exposing the larvæ to their genial influence, the scene is strikingly enlivened; for then some of the ants, which had been on the surface of the hive, descend to the bottom, and summon and rouse all the disposable inhabitants to unite their efforts for the same common object. The female larvæ, which are by far the largest and heaviest, are conveyed, with the greatest trouble, along the narrow and winding passages of the hive, and deposited, for about a quarter of an hour, in the sun-shine; when they are withdrawn under a slight shade that does not wholly intercept the heat. As the sun declines, the labourers re-convey their precious burdens into their appropriate retirements.

When the larvæ are desirous of food, they erect their body, and, with their mouth, seek for that of a labourer; which opens, and affords the claimant a honied liquor, or sugar dissolved in water, bestowing a larger allowance on the larvæ of the females than on those of the labourers and males. Not satisfied with bearing them into the sun-shine, and feeding them, these tender and affectionate insects every now and then pass their tongues and mandibles over the bodies of the larvæ intrusted to their care, and thus keep them perfectly white and clean. As the period of metamorphosis approaches, they moreover assist the larvæ in detaching their stretched and softened skin, by gently and frequently pulling it. Before they divest themselves of their skin, however, the larvæ of several species spin a lengthened and cylindrical cocoon, of a pale yellow colour, and of a

very compact silken tissue; in which, under the form of nymphs, they prepare for their last transformation. Other species, which are furnished with a sting, and two knots at the pedicle of the abdomen, become nymphs without spinning any case. The larvæ of some kinds pass the winter heaped up in the bottom of their cells, and assume a hairy coat during the cold season, although in summer they are smooth. Male and female larvæ are observed only in the spring, and undergo their change in the beginning of summer.

In the nymphal state, the ant has its permanent form and dimensions: but its members are feeble, and infolded in a single pellicle; and on such of them as are destined to fly, the rudiments of wings are apparent. After they have stirred a little, they become quite immoveable, gradually change from a most beautiful white to a pale yellow, then to rufous, and sometimes to brown, and almost to black. Their vigilant and assiduous nurses, precisely at the proper time, break open their cocoons; effecting, with much trouble and address, at the upper end, a passage of about a line in diameter, which they subsequently enlarge, employing their teeth like scissars. In the performance of this task, they relieve one another, and tenderly free the prisoner from its last folds, when it is in a condition to receive the provisions which they bring to it. The rejected coverings are, by some species, stored up in distinct compartments; by others, carried to a distance from the hive; and by others spread over its external surface.

* The labourers, to whom we have seen confided the charge of the larvæ and the nymphs, manifest the same solicitude for the ants freshly transformed; being still, for some days, subjected to the obligation of watching over and attending them. They accompany them every where, point out to them the paths and windings of the habitation, and feed them with the greatest care. They render to the males and females the difficult service of extending their wings, which, without their assistance, would continue rumpled; and they always perform this office with sufficient address to prevent these frail and delicate members from being torn: they also collect into the same cells the wandering males, and sometimes conduct them out of the nest. The labourers, in short, seem to have the entire management of them, as long as they remain within the precincts of the hive; not ceasing to fulfil their duties to these insects, (whose strength is yet imperfectly unfolded,) until the latter finally escape, to be occupied with the concerns of breeding.*

The perfect males and females now take wing, in a warm day, and celebrate their nuptials chiefly in the air; when the labourers, who had escorted them, with unceasing kindness, to the very verge of their flight, bid them a final adieu, and measure back their steps to their respective stations, cautiously
closing

closing the various avenues of the hive. The migrating horde is mostly composed of males, who describe, with great rapidity, zig-zag movements in the air; while the females execute a much more tardy and vertical motion, alternately mounting and descending, until each is led off and embraced by her admirer. After this ceremony, the males disappear, and probably soon perish: but the females enter on the career of their maternal functions, and begin by depriving themselves of their wings:—a singular discovery, which was reserved for the present ingenious author, and which he has proved by the most satisfactory experiments. Their next care is to construct a new habitation, and deposit their eggs.

All the females, however, do not abandon the old establishment, a few being impregnated within doors, and forcibly retained and closely guarded by the labourers, who appear to be perfectly conscious of the importance of these breeders to maintain their population. Should any of the *detenus* prove refractory, they are deprived of their wings, and secured in confinement. When the symptoms of maternity, however, are manifested by the swelling of the abdomen, they have no longer any inclination to roam abroad; and their guards, transformed into their nurses and protectors, caress them with their antennæ, and even convey them from one part of the hive to another, in order to afford them the temperature most suited to their situation. Should a fertile female happen to die, five or six labourers continue by her, and brush and lick the body almost incessantly, as if they still retained their affection for her, or hoped to recall her to life by their tender assiduities.

In case of invasion, or alarm, these active and intelligent insects, by means of language or signals, quickly communicate their sense of danger to all the inhabitants of the nest; when the guardians of the young instantly remove the objects of their charge from the higher to the lower apartments, by way of greater security, and the males and females take refuge in their retreats, till, admonished by the labourers, if the danger becomes more imminent, they betake themselves to flight. Among some species, a labourer intimates alarm by repeatedly striking with its head on the thorax of its companion: in a moment, the same manœuvre is performed by others; the roused ants run quickly in a semicircular direction, and the whole community is instantly on the alert. From facts which fell under his own observation, M. HUBER rejects the opinion of his celebrated countryman, *Bonnet*, who supposed that, in their marches and migrations, ants are directed entirely by their smell; whereas, on various occasions, they are also beholden to their sight, feeling, and memory.

When much molested or incommoded in their abodes, ants may be observed to migrate; the stronger and more active carrying the weaker and more sluggish in their jaws, and depositing them either in the infant establishment, or, if that be somewhat remote, at intervening stages or relays. In most cases, this conveyance seems to be the result of the language of the antennæ: but individuals are also frequently carried off by surprize, or, at least, without any apparent previous proposal. This entire migration generally originates with a few individuals, and frequently occupies some days. More than two or three new settlements are sometimes planned, but the society fixes on one of them. They have also been known to return to that which they had abandoned. In the pine-forests, large ant-hills may be occasionally observed, which communicate by beaten tracks that are sometimes an hundred feet in length, and several inches in breadth.

As proofs of the strength of affection which subsists among individuals of the same community of ants, the author cites the case of a party, which he had detached from the common dwelling, meeting with their companions at the distance of four months, and recognizing them with every demonstration of happiness and kindness; and the eagerness with which they diffuse the intelligence of an artificial increase of temperature, in the benefits of which they are anxious that every member of the society should participate. Their benevolence and patriotism, in short, are purely republican, and know no other limits than those of the commonwealth. Yet, although perfect harmony reigns within the walls of the same settlement, acts of varied and determined hostility are openly committed, and frequently on the most extensive and systematic scale, for the sake of procuring subsistence, or discomfiting a neighbouring and rival establishment. A highly interesting and detailed narrative is given of a pitched and formidable battle between two hordes of the fawn-coloured kind: but we omit the particulars, to make room for the ensuing more extraordinary intelligence, which has a reference to the same species:

‘ One day,’ (says the author,) ‘ I approached one of their nests, which was exposed to the sun, and shaded on the north side. The ants were accumulated in great numbers, and seemed to enjoy the temperature which they experienced at the surface of the nest. None of them were at work. This multitude of accumulated insects presented the picture of a boiling liquid, on which, at first, I could with difficulty fix my eyes: but, when I began to trace the operations of each ant separately, I perceived them approach one another, and with an astonishingly rapid play of their antennæ, with gentle movements

movements of their fore-feet, they patted the lateral parts of the head of the other ants. After these first gestures, which resembled caresses, I observed them rise on their hind legs, by pairs; wrestle; lay hold of each other by a mandible, a foot, or an antenna; then suddenly desist, to renew the attack, mutually grappling at the thorax, or abdomen, embracing and overturning one another; alternately getting up again, and taking their revenge, without appearing to have been injured; for they darted no poison, as in their fights, nor retained their adversary with that obstinacy which I have remarked in their serious quarrels: they also quickly abandoned the ants which they had seized, and endeavoured to lay hold on others. Some I have seen so ardent in these exercises, that they gave chase to several labourers in succession, struggling with them for a few moments, and not giving up the contest until the least animated of the group, after having overthrown its antagonist, effected its escape, by skulking in some gallery. I frequently returned to this hive, which almost always afforded me the same spectacle. Sometimes this disposition was general, groups of ants wrestling together in all directions; and I never saw any of them come out of the struggle either wounded or mutilated.

Since the utmost harmony prevailed in this community, to what motives are we to ascribe these sham fights? to a love of amusement, merely, or to regular training for more serious campaigns?

The language of these insects seems to consist chiefly in contact of the antennæ, variously modified. Thus, when a catering labourer returns home with its stomach loaded with animal or vegetable juices, it is accosted by a hungry ant; and the mutual and rapid striking of the antennæ is instantly followed by opening their mouths, advancing their tongues, and so transferring a portion of the disgorged liquor into the empty stomach. Even the larvæ comprehend the antennal signals of their feeders, and dispose themselves for receiving their allowance. By means of the same delicate organs of touch, the ants hold converse with the aphides, whose honied dejections form a principal part of their aliment. By gently tickling the hinder part of the body with their antennæ, they induce these plant-suckers to part with the syrup which they have elaborated. A perfectly good understanding prevails between these two families of insects, which court each other's society; and even the winged aphides, instead of shunning the ants, cheerfully remain among them, and readily share with them the superfluous portions of their subsistence. Terms of similar intimacy subsist between ants and many of the gall-insects; which last also furnish a sweet excretion from the juices of the trees on which they feed.

Some of the more minute species of ants, which go little abroad, maintain a sufficient supply of aphides within their
nest.

nest; allowing them to feed on the roots of grass, &c. or constructing lodgings for them in the stems of vegetables, of which they suck the juice. Others discover something like a sense of property in the aphides residing on particular branches, and vigorously resist any aggression made on them by ants belonging to another community. It is also highly deserving of remark that ants and aphides become torpid and revive at the same points of temperature; so that the former, when roused into activity by a remission of cold weather, are in no danger of starving, because they find their nurses ready to minister to their wants. Of the autumnal eggs of the aphides, the ants take as much care as of their own larvæ; frequently removing them from place to place, licking them with their tongue, and attaching them together by a viscid matter, which preserves them sound till the season of hatching.

One of the most wonderful discoveries in the history of this genus of insects, and for which we are indebted to the present writer, is the economy of the *rufous* or *Amazonian* species; which, in the warm afternoons of summer, issue forth in array to attack the hives of the black ash-coloured kind, and carry off all the larvæ and nymphs that they can secure. In the course of one afternoon, the same phalanx has been seen to return thrice to the charge, and to encounter most formidable obstacles at each attack; the invaded having fortified and entrenched themselves during the intervals of hostility. The larvæ and nymphs, collected during the first and second incursions, were regularly deposited at the entrance of the Amazonian hive, and then carefully lodged in their proper cells by the *ash-coloured* ants belonging to the same establishment, on whom devolves the management of the domestic concerns; since these auxiliaries, in fact, construct the common dwelling, cater for its inhabitants, take charge of the young brood, and, when a change of residence becomes necessary, not only select the spot but convey the soldiers to their new quarters. The latter, in their turn, remain quiet and apparently idle at home, till the hour of marauding again rouses their energy; which hour, about Geneva, is never earlier than two o'clock, nor later than five. These warriors, indeed, are rather a brave than a hardy race: for they never venture out in the rain, nor when *Reaumur's* thermometer is under 16 in the shade; and they are all housed again at six, or half-past six o'clock, in the evening, at latest. In this mixed association, the two species live on terms of the greatest friendship. The plunderers are not carnivorous, rejecting the insects or other animal food which their auxiliaries devour: neither do they slaughter many ants, nor make any prisoners, nor destroy the nest, in their
combats

combats to obtain larvæ and nymphs, which form the sole object of their expeditions. In most cases, they direct their march straight forwards to the nest that lies most within their reach; the foremost occasionally falling a little back, by describing a curve at the sides of the column, and then joining some of the lower ranks, the van thus constantly changing its individual composition. It is probable that some detached scouts previously reconnoitre the neighbourhood, and take note of the sites of those ant-hills which suit their purpose; since, otherwise, it is difficult to conceive how they should proceed to them with such unerring confidence. The neuters only, it may be observed, engage in these plundering expeditions. — In one solitary instance, M. HUBER saw that they missed their aim; describing a curved march of more than fifty paces, frequently halting, and dispersing into different directions, without finding a nest. They then re-assembled, and returned home, but met with no very cordial reception from their swarthy hosts; who, by tugging and pulling at them, probably intended to reproach their want of success. When our observer put his hand across the line of their march, the Amazons moved among his fingers, without attempting to bite. He never saw them take food but from the mouth of their ash-coloured inmates. ‘In vain,’ he says, ‘I have offered them honey and fruits; they never touched them: but, when they were hungry, they approached the auxiliaries, who disgorged into their mouths the juices which they collected in the course of their daily visits to the aphides.’ The author has likewise distinctly ascertained that the *mining* ants also perform the part of servants, or auxiliaries to the Amazons:

‘The black-cinereons and the miners are, then, the negroes of the Amazonian ants: it is among the two first mentioned that the last go in quest of slaves: they carry them off at a period when their instinct is still unfolded; and these ants, bred up in the midst of them, make them share the fruit of their industry. But with what prudence, with what wisdom, has this institution, which is sometimes barbarous among men, been established among those insects which we have just described? Here we see neither servitude nor oppression; these ants seem never to entertain the slightest suspicion that they are in a strange nest: collected from twenty different homes, they live under the same roof as if they were sisters; and their affection discriminates the Amazons only to treat them with an increased prodigality of care. Nature, profound in her combinations, is aware that old ants could not live in peace with strangers: but she is not ignorant that the young can consort with those of another species when they are early habituated to see them, and to receive their attentions; she also knows that they inspire no aversion in those who have seen them born. In conformity with these principles, she has instituted the mixed hives; and hence the Amazons, in their expeditions, never

carry off grown ants, but only their larvæ and nymphs; and, for the same reason, they seek not to kill their enemies, but merely to rob them of their young.

* From all these facts, an important truth results with regard to the manners of these insects; namely, that their instinct is capable of receiving certain modifications. Ants, taken when young, may be tamed, and live with hostile species: it is, therefore, in the first days of their existence, that they form those impressions which they are destined ever afterward to retain; and the same object which, otherwise, would naturally have excited their hatred, then inspire them only with sentiments of love.*

The blood-coloured species also adopts the ash-coloured and miners as auxiliaries; but they devour small ants and insects, conduct their predatory excursions in troops and detachments, and not only seize on larvæ and nymphs, but lead captive the enemies whom they subdue, and sometimes occupy the nest which they carry by storm. Their inroads, therefore, are more destructive than those of the Amazons: but they are likewise more limited in extent; since a horde of this species will not attack more than five or six nests, in the month of August, which comprizes the whole of their annual campaign.

On the concluding chapter, which presents us with some general considerations respecting the talents and characters of insects, as they are affected by social or solitary habits, we forbear to touch, both because we have already allotted so much room to the more immediate objects of this captivating volume, and because we prefer the author's statements of matters of fact to the reasonings which he would deduce from them. We cannot, however, close our report without warmly recommending the perusal of the original work to the old and the young, to the serious and the gay; nor without expressing our most ardent desire, that M. HUBER may be long enabled to persevere in that line of observation for which he is so conspicuously qualified.

ART. II. *De l'État de la Poésie Française, &c. ; i. e. On the State of French Poetry in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Centuries, &c.* By B. DE ROQUEFORT-FLAMÉRICOURT. 8vo. pp. 430. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe.

THE author of this curious, valuable, and entertaining volume is already known to our readers as the editor of an excellent glossary of *Romance*, which was noticed at considerable length in our lxxiind volume. Accustomed as he has been to search the archives of ancient French literature with patient and sagacious toil, it was natural that his attention should

should be excited by the prize-question, which the Paris Institute proposed in 1812: "*What was the state of French poetry, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries? What forms of composition principally engaged employment?*" As an answer to this question, the work before us was originally undertaken, and was read before the Institute: but the memoir, in its pristine form, not having given entire satisfaction, although the best which was offered in the competition, the decision was adjourned. Meanwhile, the MS. was withdrawn, re-modelled, dilated to its present extent, and obtained the prize during the following year. It well deserves academic honours and pecuniary recompence.

The introduction notices some of the more antient writers who have discussed this subject, such as *Fauchet*, *Legrand*, and *Barbazan*. Their errors and deficiencies are pointed out; and an elegant panegyric is pronounced on the study of antiquated literature, as a mine of fable and of expression to the poet:—as a lantern to the history of the dark ages;—as ennobling a country in the eye of a patriot by multiplying interesting reminiscences;—and as explanatory of the culture of the human race by defining the influence on nations of their period of infancy.

In the first chapter, the writer treats of the development and progress of the *Romanse* language, and of its daughter-dialects. Much of the matter in this section has been given by us in a more condensed form, while we were intent on the author's previous work, (see pp. 486—490. vol. lxxiii.) from the preface to which he now borrows largely. The curious anecdote occurs, that, in the eleventh century, the abbey of Saint Benedict on the Loire possessed five thousand scholars, lay and clerical; and that the Abbot Aubon required of each pupil two books as an entrance-fee. Thus a large library was rapidly accumulated. *Chretien de Troyes*, who flourished in the twelfth century, is named as the earliest eminent poet of romance among the French. The principal dialects of the *Romanse* language are also enumerated: of the southern or *Provençal* dialects, the *Languedocien* is preferred; of the northern, the *Norman*.

M. DE R. says that the best prose-writers, both among the antients and among the moderns, began by making verses;—and nations have begun in the same manner. Verses have been the first children of genius, and the first teachers of eloquence. Of the various faculties of the human mind, the most lively and the most ardent is the imagination; and it is accordingly that which is first developed. We learn to express sensations, and to combine images, before we learn to compare relations and to concatenate arguments. Hence the arts

arts precede the sciences; and poetry, the most brilliant of the arts, may be traced to the very infancy of civil societies.

A dissertation on the origin of rime terminates the section. The author is inclined to deduce it with *Ravaillers* from the remains of Latin culture: the invasion of Italy by the Goths overthrew, he thinks, the habit of attending to quantity in speaking; and rime became in consequence necessary to distinguish poetry. In one of our magazines, we recollect to have seen a studied dissertation on that subject, which endeavours to shew that the Cimbric or Armorican dialects had immemorially employed rime; that the first Latin rimes on record are those of Saint Augustin, relative to the Pelagian controversy; and that his adoption of rime resulted from its previous use by his Welsh antagonist. To the rimed songs of the bards and druids, it is inferred, the Belgic nations owed the first use of rime; and accordingly it is precisely in the epic poems of their pupils, the Anglo-norman romancers, that the first extensive specimens of vernacular rime occur. If rime be a Gothic word, (*riem*, a thong,) signifying a tie or bond, and not derived from the Greek *rhythmos*, it ought not to be spelled *rhyme*.

The second chapter treats of French poetry in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries: of the provinces in which it was cultivated, of the influence of Norman dominion, and of English ascendancy. The vernacular dialect of northern France migrated under William the Conqueror into Great Britain; bringing back with it a vast mass of tradition concerning Arthur, and other British heroes, who became early favourites of romance. Much use is made in this chapter of the excellent dissertations by M. *de la Rue*, inserted in the twelfth and succeeding volumes of the *London Archæologia*. The minstrels who accompanied William the Conqueror were named *Taillefer* and *Berdic*. The romance of *Horn* and *Hunlaf*, and that of *Hildebrand*, are epitomized, and referred to an English origin.

The *Troubadours* of the south, who mostly cultivated song-singing, are distinguished from the *Trouveres* of the north, who mostly cultivated story-telling. There are instances of Provençal songs connected by intervals of narrative, as *Aucassin* and *Nicolette*; and instances of Norman stories enlivened by interspersed song, as in *Hildebrand*: but, in general, the north has tended to solitary narrative, and the south to social harmony. — With this chapter, ends the first subdivision of the work.

Part II. quits the history of poetry to treat of its forms. Rime begins with the couplet; afterward occur alternate rimes,

rimes, and stanzas still more complex. Long and short verses, single and double rimes, and various forms of stanza, are agreeably exemplified. In the next chapter, the author speaks of the manners and office of the poets, of their connection with courts, of their reciprocal relation, and of poetic societies. The third chapter concerns music, song, the instruments in use, and the manner in which they were applied to adorn and heighten festivity. On the subject of antient musical instruments, much new and sound knowledge is displayed, derived from an attentive consultation of illuminated manuscripts, and from an extensive comparison of literary authorities.

In the third part, the author treats of the objects of poetry, and first of epic poetry. One chapter is exclusively allotted to the old poems concerning Charlemagne; and a second to the romances of the Round Table. Walter of Oxford, says the author, (p. 142.) during his travels in France, found in Brittany an Armorican manuscript intitled *Bruty Brenbined*: which he took over to England, and communicated to Geoffry Arthur of Monmouth, afterward bishop of Saint Asaph, a learned Benedictine, who, at the request of Robert Count of Gloucester, turned it into Latin. From this translation, originated the *Roman du Brut*, which Robert Wace about 1139 composed in French verse; and hence sprang the vast family of romances concerning the court of Arthur.

A third chapter treats of mixed romances, such as Reynard the Fox, which was composed at the beginning of the thirteenth century by *Perrot de Saint Cloud*.

‘The romance of the *Chevalier au Cygne*,’ (says M. DE R. p. 162.) ‘which contains the history of the conquest of Jerusalem by Godfrey of Bouillon, was begun by one *Renax* and finished by *Gandor* of Douay. It has escaped the notice of several eminent bibliographers. Only two manuscripts of it are known, which differ widely from each other; the one is in the imperial library, the second in the arsenal. This poem consists of nearly thirty thousand lines; it was translated into prose during the fourteenth century, and printed in the sixteenth. According to custom, the translator has allowed himself to curtail, to insert, and to vary many incidents. From the printed copy, *Constant d’Orville* made the analysis inserted in the *Mélanges tirés d’une grande Bibliothèque*.’

The editors of Tasso have not been duly attentive to the illustrations afforded by this romance. — *William of Aquitaine*, or the short-nosed, is a romance epitomized in this chapter; it narrates adventures in Navarre, with which Saracens of Spain take part. Another Saracenic tale is *Garin of Lorraine*, he was attached to Charles Martel. *Gerard of Nevers* is a third

story, adapted to supply the French epic poet with an interesting fable.

Allegoric romances are next considered, and an oriental origin is assigned to the *Romaunt of the Rose*. M. DE ROQUEFORT says that it was originally written in the Hindu tongue by Sendebâr, a century before the Christian era. It has since been translated into Persian, Hebrew, Syriac, Greek, Latin, and all the modern languages. In the Greek version, the author is called Syntipas.

The ensuing section treats of Tales and *Fabliaux*, as they were called by the *Trouveres*; short narratives, which may be read or heard at a single sitting. This is in fact the most rational and convenient form of epic poetry: since attention tires, and opportunity disappoints, before the reader, or hearer, can go through the concatenated incidents of an *Iliad*. We feel inclined to assume it as a law of taste, because it is the result of natural convenience, that no epic poet should attempt to convene his audience more than seven times: for the same people do not continue together above a week; and hence seven sittings, or seven books, form the largest allowable dimensions of narrative poetry. The historic progress of composition has followed the detection of this law: the early romancers wrote very long poems, and were warned into successive abridgments by the yawns of their departing hearers: garrulity is the easiest, and stimulation the most difficult attainment of the poet.

It is here observed that we have few historic *fabliaux*, (p. 189.) but many which are galant, erotic, serious, and pious. They are often divided into nine-line stanzas; the verses being mostly of eight syllables, and sometimes terminating with a burden, or chorus. Great care is usually taken that the word which ends one stanza shall begin the next, such cue-words being useful to the reciter or rememberer. After dinner, or after supper, or at fairs to a casual crowd, these recitations were made; and the innkeeper usually gave a meal to the bard for amusing the guests at the ordinary.

Boccaccio, during his stay at Paris, became acquainted with the *Fabliaux* of the *Trouveres*, many of which had penetrated into Italy, and made for himself an epitome of the more popular: this formed the basis of his *Decameron*, in which he took public morality as he found it, and diffused only that which every body heard without a blush. Many other writers, such as *Rabelais*, *Lafontaine*, and even *Moliere*, are indebted to ancient *fabliaux* for their happiest incidents; and M. Lorin has considered, in an agreeable pamphlet printed in 1811, the advantages

advantages to be derived from studying the old writers, in which he indicates numberless modern imitations.

Apologues, or Æsopian fables, next pass under review: — then, lyric poetry, and the several forms of song. The *Lay* is here defined to be a short narrative entirely in song; or, as we should say, a ballad. The *Sirvente* seems to have given origin to the modern epigram, which has more of narrative and of point than the antient epigram, which approaches nearer to inscription.

Didactic poetry is made to include satires, moralities, rimed proverbs, hymns, epistles, lives of saints, and treatises of natural history and science. Curious examples are given in each department.

Dramatic poetry occupies the concluding section, but is hurried over with voluntary negligence, as presenting a field too vast for subordinate cultivation.

A rapid survey of the ground on which the writer has travelled terminates the work. Observations occur on the *fixity* of the French language, which the author seems to consider as an advantage; whereas that plasticity, which can resume at will in poetry, or even in prose, the antiquated forms of expression, appears to us far more desirable. We are grateful to this writer for curious information neatly disposed concerning the history of French poetry, especially during its most interesting period, the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. It was then that French poetry travelled all over Europe; that it celebrated the achievements of the heroic or chivalrous age of the modern world; that it sought in native opinion and imagery its resources of decoration; and that it asserted a raciness, a taste of the soil, an unborrowed character, which the cold and stiff classic age of Louis XIV. was unable to val.

An appendix of documents and a good index are attached to the volume, as also the prospectus of a most extensive glossary of the literature of the middle age, which the author is meditating to publish.

ART. III. *De Moreau, &c.; i. e. Of Moreau.* By M. GARAT. 8vo. pp. 44. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Conchy. Price 2s.

TO the eloquence and candor of M. GARAT we paid a tribute of applause in Vol. xix. p. 552., and we are glad to see so able a pen employed in the justification of *Moreau*. This funeral oration, or biographical panegyric, is dedicated with

with much propriety to the Emperor of Russia, and may be compared for literary skill with Pliny's eulogy of Trajan.

From the abstract of the life of this unfortunate General, which we gave in our lxxvth Vol., p. 184., our readers are aware that he was bred to the bar, and had imbibed a strict attachment to the principles of civil liberty. Forced by circumstances into a military career, he carried into it too much perhaps of the indecisive balancing temper of equity, and of the cautious, prudent, circumspect, considerate, foresight of the magistrate. Ever firm and never rash, he acquired celebrity as the hero of retreats. He would patiently have defended his party against the king, or his country against Europe, but would never have usurped an undelegated authority, nor have carried the banners of conquest beyond the Dnieper.

Independence is more important to a nation than even liberty, which is precarious without it, and must want security and stability. Independence is the vase; and, if that be cracked, it is useless to have put into it the purest water. Hence all parties, which have recourse to foreign or external aid for the attainment of their ends, are justly blamed; they endanger the independence of their country, and can at best bestow only a worthless liberty: but *Moreau* had not thoroughly considered this question, or had decided it otherwise; since he appears to have been willing to co-operate with the supporters of *Pichegru*, or with the Emperor of Russia, for the purpose of obtaining a constitutional liberty in France. To *Moreau*, at an early period, the French should have adhered; he was then worthy to have become the Washington of their Revolution: but to *Moreau*, in his latter days, they did well not to adhere, since he could only have instituted a liberty which would have impaired their independence.

During the war of the Revolution, France has had in view three distinct purposes, any one of which might have been attained, if it had been made the single and steady object of the country: but, by choosing the leaders sometimes for the sake of one purpose and sometimes for the sake of another, all have been lost. These purposes were, the overturn of their religion, the conquest of Europe, and the institution of liberty. The French have progressively given up the two former, but to them they made sacrifices which have cost the third. They threw away the consolidating force of an established clergy, for the sake of extirpating religion; they urged on with premature extravagance the invasion of eastern Europe, for the sake of distancing and dethroning a domestic sovereign who disclaimed homage to liberty; and now their very freedom is shuddering at the touch of foreign protectors.

We will translate a page or two of M. GARAT's interesting and splendid declamation :

‘ O ye, people and kings, who are giving new laws to empires, never forget that, even with the purest intentions, error, folly, and disaster weave the thread of human destiny, if you trust simply in the foresight of individuals, in their talents and their virtues. Unless you surround them with a political organization, with a social order so constituted that the movements of the passions and the events which awaken them have their orbits and their checks assigned, as in those creations of mechanism which have added so much to human power, you will have thought and toiled in vain.

‘ I perceive the smile of ignorance and disdain : — I hear the words, *theory, dream*. *He* too pronounced these words with a scorn in which something of inquietude and much of hatred might be discerned ; *he* pronounced them from the hustings of his throne ; *he* who of late was so powerful, and fancied himself more potent than public opinion. *He* smiled at those awful warnings of philosophy, which are only prophetic because they are the history of all ages past. Where is now his power ? I was about to ask *where has it been ?* but that the ruins and victims which surround us forbid a doubt of its existence. Yet I attest those immortal spirits, who will eternally be the light of the human race, those oracles of social wisdom in England, in France, in Europe ; I attest the *Lockes*, and the *Montesquieus*, — who were not deficient in experience since they combined that of every age and every nation, — to shew that the united universe would not have shaken the power of Napoleon, if he had left it standing on the same basis on which the elevation was begun. His very throne undoubtedly would but have carried it higher, had that throne rested on the same foundations as the consular authority. He has not fallen because he made himself emperor, but because he governed the empire with an arbitrary undelegated authority, by volitions which had the character of passions, not of laws ; and because he always sneered or frowned at the mention of those rights, and of those representatives of the people, which alone could have perpetuated his sway by consecrating it, and alone could have formed around his throne and person an imperial guard for ever invincible.

‘ O Alexander, and you especially ye Bourbons, who already possess what Alexander has to create, — you whose nation has long since been emancipated by the sceptre of your ancestors, — you, who have so much suffered and so much pondered during the revolutions which tore asunder and re-joined your throne, — you will profit by these *theories*, which are *dreams* to presumptuous slaves, *crimes* to uneasy tyrants, and *eternal laws* to enlightened and virtuous princes. These laws are not made by man ; genius has transcribed them under the dictate of nature ; and nature received them from him to whom she owes her being, the architect of rolling worlds, of living nations, of intelligent minds.’

The description of *Moreau's* trial and imprisonment is managed with great dexterity ; whatever seemed to require apo-

logy is narrated in a manner singularly favourable to the suggestion of candid and honourable interpretation; and, if *Mercure* made a false step, the friendship of his orator has not failed. We recommend this pamphlet as an important study to those party-writers, who have occasionally to dissent on an eminent character for the purpose of splendid exhibition: they may learn from it the art of picturesque illumination, so as to bring out every native beauty, and to cover with unaffected shade the portions that are suspected of blemish. The style, however, is too uniformly magnificent: intervals of simplicity are always requisite to render decoration striking.

ART. IV. *Commentaire sur le Théâtre de Voltaire, &c.; i.e. A Commentary on the Dramas of Voltaire.* By M. DE LA HARPE. Printed after the Autographical MS. of this celebrated Critic. 8vo. pp. 511. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe.

THE thirty-third and subsequent volumes of our New Series included ample accounts of M. DE LA HARPE'S "Course of Literature:" this Commentary on the Theatre of Voltaire is a prior production, but remained in manuscript until now; perhaps because the author could not find a publisher, or because he had transplanted into his lectures the more valuable observations contained in it; — or, more probably, because *Voltaire*, in whose library the manuscript was preserved, had bought it in from the bookseller. The annotations will be useful to young writers, and are adapted to teach habits of correct composition; but the detail is tediously excessive, and the number of reiterated and insignificant remarks is unaccountable.

The work is divided into three segments, in the first of which are examined one by one the tragedies, in the second the comedies, and in the third the operas of *Voltaire*. Most of these criticisms were progressively inserted in the *Mercure de France*, when the several plays were first acted: but some few interstitial comments have been written since, in order to complete the survey. In the later animadversions, a bitterer taste prevails than in the earlier.

Oedipus is the subject of the first analysis; and the tragedy of *Voltaire* is preferred to that of Sophocles, which bears the same name and plan. Next succeed *Artemira*, and *Mariamne*. The *Brutus* is justly applauded for a fine exposition or opening of the plot, for the Roman greatness of the leading character, and for scattered maxims of magnanimity; while it is censured for coldness of intrigue, and for the want of progressive interest. Then follows *Eriphyle*, which is now forgotten at home, and was never known abroad.

Zaire is the master-piece of *Voltaire*, and of the French theatre: it was translated into English by Hill, and had the advantage of Garrick's support in Lusignan. Though the characters of Orosman and of Zara are too European for their circumstances, the piece is full of fine and pathetic situations; especially the second act, in which Lusignan discovers his children. The first and second scenes are epic, rather than dramatic, and form but an awkward exposition. — We should have pleasure in following and revising the multitudinous local criticisms of the author: but, as they mostly respect questions of French language and idiom, they would excite only feeble interest here.

The analysis follows of *Adelaide du Guesclin*, of the death of Cæsar, (which, like all the Roman subjects of *Voltaire*, is nobly and classically treated,) of *Alzire*, an improbable but beautiful poem, and of *Zulima*, an unfortunate imitation of *Racine's Bajazet*.

Various controversial letters intervene; after which, the analysis of the tragedies is resumed: *Mahomet*: *Semiramis*: *Merope*: *Orestes*: *Catilina*: *The Orphan of China*: *Tancred*: *Olympia*: *The Triumvirate*: *The Scythians*: *The Guebres*: *Sophonisba*: *The Laws of Minos*: *Don Pedro*: *Atreus and Thyestes*: *Agathocles*; and *Irene*. In general, the preference is awarded to the Roman subjects: of the Greek plays, *Merope* obtains the palm; and of the newer topics, *Mahomet*.

Remarks succeed on the comedies, and on the operas, which are censured with merited but unexpected harshness. The tragedies of *Rowe* approach nearer to those of *Voltaire* than the dramas of any other English poet. They frequently display an artful fable, situations deeply pathetic, and maxims of magnanimity: but the style of *Rowe* is perhaps looser and less classical; and he is less perpetually intent on the pleasure of the audience. *Rowe* is apt to convert himself into one of his heroes, and *Voltaire* into one of his spectators.

ART. V. *Esprit de J. F. de la Harpe, &c.; i.e.* The Spirit of *J. F. de la Harpe*, of the French Academy; with a Biographical Notice of this Academician. 12mo. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3s. 6d. sewed.

PERHAPS it may be said that *M. de la Harpe* fills too voluminous a space in the libraries of French literature. Eminent rather than great in epistolary and dramatic poetry, and laurelled rather than excellent in funeral eulogy, his weightiest claims to admiration repose on his critical exertions; many of which were separately published in periodical journals, and

finally collected and embodied in his *Course of Literature*. That work still passes for classical in France, and has transferred from *Marmontel* to its author the appellation of the French Quintilian.

He was born in 1739; and his father, a knight of Saint Louis, having died during his infancy, and left no provision for the family, the Sisters of Charity, an order of nuns, who devoted themselves to benevolent offices, undertook the care of his early life, and placed him at a proper age in the school for orphans. He availed himself eagerly of this opportunity of instruction; and, having been distinguished at the public examinations by his intelligent and beautiful recitation of French poetry, he was noticed by M. *Asselin*, then principal of the Harcourt-college, and invited to continue his studies at that institution. Some *exhibition*, or purse, was obtained for him, and the generosity of M. *Asselin* provided for remaining deficiencies in his means of finance.

While at college, *La Harpe* exercised himself in making verses; and one of his fellow-students, who had written a satire on the professor of theology, applied to *La Harpe* for corrections, which he suggested. Soon afterward, a satire on M. *Asselin* was in circulation; and the detection of *La Harpe's* concurrence in a former instance occasioned his being suspected in this. A cry of ingratitude was therefore raised against the young epigrammatist; in defiance of his protestations, his supposed crime was even consigned to the notice of the police; and he was committed to a house of correction for the alleged offence. It was soon discovered, however, that *La Harpe* had no hand in this second libel, and he was liberated: but the remembrance of a degrading punishment embittered his temper, and contributed probably to that asperity of independence with which, in his early writings, he inveighs against political restraint.

The first publications of *La Harpe* excited the attention of *Voltaire*, who invited him to Ferney; where he performed and was applauded at the private theatre of the philosopher, and was thus induced to undertake the dramatic career as an author. He married young: his figure was small, but correct; naturally serious in the company of men, he acquired in that of women a dramatic animation, and was much invited to the blue-stocking parties of Paris, given by Mad. *Tencin*, Mad. *Geoffrin*, and other accomplished ladies. — He had furnished to the journals many anonymous criticisms: but his first *onymous* publication was a volume of Heroids, or Poetic Epistles; among which may be pointed out as the best the epistle from a monk of *La Trappe* to the Abbé *Rancé*. *Tangue et Felice*

Pesitie is also a pleasing poem.—His dramatic productions were numerous: but the tragedy of Warwick was at the theatre the most splendidly successful of them all. Coriolanus, Philoctetes, Virginia, The Barmecides, Johanna of Naples, Melanie, are the titles of his other tragic plays. He wrote some comedies with less applause.—In the collection of his funeral eulogies, may be distinguished that of *Racine*.

During the life-time of *Voltaire*, *La Harpe* preserved a connection with him, which favoured literary success, but which involved a profession of philosophic sentiments: but, after the death of the former, he renounced his infidelity, and in a course of lectures on the history of literature, which he was delivering at the Lyceum in 1795, publicly declared his recantation. His subsequent works had always for their object to impress on public opinion a counter-revolutionary tendency; and the pamphlet intitled *Fanatisme de la Langue Revolutionnaire* has a grammatical and critical value.—He died in the most pious frame of mind. Feeling his end approach, he gave his hand to M. *de Fontanes*, and said: “I thank Heaven that my head remains clear enough to tell you how much I prize the hopes and consolations of religion.” On the day after this interview, he was no more.

From the various prose-works of *La Harpe*, the editor of this volume has selected the most striking beauties, which he has reprinted apart; and they form a series of eloquent sentences, relating to critical more frequently than to moral topics. These sentences have usually an eloquent turn of phrase, depending on antithesis: but the thoughts themselves have not always the merit of soundness or clearness. We translate a scattered score:

‘Models of all kinds precede rules. Genius considers nature, and embellishes while it imitates. Observers contemplate the toil of genius, and develope, by analysis, the secret of its miracles.’

‘The imperfection of the *Æneid*, and the perfection of the *Georgics*, conspire to prove the prodigious distance that subsists between the best didactic poem and so vast a creation as the epopea.’

‘Folly is like infancy, interesting because it conceals nothing.’

‘Kings are rarely wicked, because they have no interest in being so: they seldom do any other harm than that which they suffer to be done.’

‘Bad princes, after they are dead, are only praised in the funeral ceremony: to the vain dignity of their ashes, are addressed the last lies of flattery, which then speeds from their tomb to deceive their successors.’

‘The eulogy of a great man is commonly a struggle against prejudice.’

‘The minister of God’s word has no where more power and dignity than in the pulpit. Elsewhere, he is a man speaking to men; here,

here, he is a being of another kind, elevated between heaven and earth : a mediator, whom God places between his creatures and himself. Independently of the considerations of time, he announces the oracles of eternity. The very place in which he speaks, and his congregation listen to him, confounds and extinguishes all other greatness, to leave solely his own apparent. Kings bow, like nations, before his tribunal, and attend there for instruction. All that surrounds him adds new weight to his words. His voice echoes in a hallowed precinct, and amid the silence of universal collectedness. If he calls God to witness, God is present at the altar ; if he announces the nothingness of life, death is near him, to point out to the hearers that they are seated over graves.'

' The power of forgetting is one of the blessings of man : he could not bear at once the whole past, and the whole present. But this faculty, like every other, requires moderation ; he who forgets too much or too soon has not learnt enough or corrected enough.'

' Neatness is the ornament of old age.'

' In poetry, nothing atones for the want of imagination or interest.'

' It is by compressing ideas, not by heaping words, that profundity is obtained.'

' We ought to abuse nothing, least of all the patience of the public.'

' Great things should be said in plain words.'

*' I.' Anglois indépendant, et libre autant que brave,
Des caprices de cour ne fut jamais esclave.
Nous ne l'avons point vu régler, jusqu'à ce jour,
Sur la faveur des rois sa haine ou son amour :
Contre un tel préjugé son âme est aguerrie ;
Souvent contre le trône il défend la patrie.
Ses rois le savent trop : ce peuple citoyen
Ose attaquer leur choix et soutenir le sien.
Nul à ses souverains ne rend autant d'hommage ;
Mais sous ces vains respects, consacrés par l'usage,
Il garde une fierté qu'ils craignent d'éprouver ;
Il les sert à genoux, mais il sait les braver.'*

' No author is so wounding to the conscience of a bad king as Tacitus.'

' It is by examining his own ideas with rigid exactness, that an author learns to think with precision : he can only save the work of criticism by doing it himself.'

' The finest present, which Heaven could make to man, would be to unite under the diadem *genius* and *virtue*.'

' Glory is judged, bounty is loved.'

' It is more difficult to support than to attain elevation.'

' Pope's art of pleasantry is always one and the same ; it consists in coupling a great object and a little one.'

Our readers may judge of M. de La Harpe's strength of wing from these flights, or flutters ; and they will perhaps agree with us that he is rather the pupil of accomplishment than the hero of nature : that good masters, good books, and good

society, infused the ideas which he pours out, but that he observed little and invented less. In short, he draws from the cistern, — not from the well, — a water somewhat noisy and somewhat turbid.

In volumes xxxiii.—xxxvii. of our New Series, we examined at length that *Course of Literature* which has furnished the principal citations in this epitome. We praised the author's comprehensive plan, proportionate distribution, exemplary industry, and judicious adoption of received opinions in criticism. We discovered most originality and felicity in his dramatic strictures: but we thought that his style exhibited symptoms of the decay of taste, by repeated efforts at turgidity and a want of precision. We again refer our readers to that extended analysis.

ART. VI. *Guillaume le Franc-Parleur, &c. ; i. e. William the Free Speaker, or Observations on French Manners at the Beginning of the 19th Century ; a Continuation of the Hermit of the Chaussée d'Antin.* By the same Author. Vol. I. 12mo. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 6s.

Paris Chit Chat ; or a View of the Society, Manners, Customs, Literature, and Amusements of the Parisians, being a Translation of "Guillaume le Franc-Parleur," and a Sequel to "L'Hermite de la Chaussée d'Antin." 12mo. 2 Vols. Boards. Hookham. 1815.

THE Hermit of the *Chaussée d'Antin* was reviewed by us in Vol. lxxii., p. 465.; and this sequel to that work has the same character of form and of merit. Like the *Tatler*, it consists of a series of numbers, which were separately and successively published in a regular newspaper, and are now reprinted collectively. Sometimes a moral exhortation, oftener a sketch of individual manners, and occasionally a description of Parisian institutions, form the topics of the author; whose freedom of speech, however, is discoverable only in the title-page. He is a royalist, and practises that respectful and decorous awe before the sovereign which teaches order, prepares obedience, and constitutes the habitual virtue of the party.

We shall resume the analytical form of our preceding article, specify the contents of the several papers, and pass a few comments on the more interesting; which rival in variety those of M. *Salgues* noticed in M. R. Vol. lxxiii., p. 528.

The first describes William the Free Speaker; and it hence appears that liberty of tongue must be terribly confined, where it passes for courage to talk harshly of the administration of ten years preceding. No. ii. paints the restoration of the King.

iii. A Symposium, or supper-dialogue, on the importance of confiding public situations only to the talents and probity of the country. No. iv. A sketch of Paris. v. A lively satire on the extravagant claims of the royalists, every one of whom seems to expect from the restored prince a distinguished situation, and an immortal nobility. vi. On Suicide. vii. Indecision of modern manners. The old usages of the French nation have been greatly shaken during the Revolution; and there is as yet no exemplary class which can give a national fashion to the new modes now under trial. Hence the variety of hours, dresses, studies, and pursuits, prevalent at Paris. This indecision may terminate in a tasteful selection of that which is best every where: but, at present, the dominion of fashion is in a state of anarchy, and no one has authority enough to lead the ton. — No. viii. describes the baths of Paris, but not so well as Lucian praises the bath of Hippias. No. ix. treats of caricature, and will supply a convenient extract, which we shall quote from the English translation of the work :

‘ Some people of precise taste have set themselves against the practice of caricaturing; and they can see nothing in it but the grossest satire, alike hurtful to public morals, which it outrages, and to art itself, which it degrades. I am not of that opinion; and I claim that as a right for Painting, which has been considered the duty of Poetry — that of passing “from grave to gay, from lively to severe,” — and I believe that we may laugh as safely at the extravagancies of Leonardo da Vinci as at Moliere’s farces.

‘ There seems to me to be something wrong in the etymology of the word *caricature*, as if it had been intended either to do honour to, or to lay blame upon the Italians, on account of a species of composition, of which many examples may be found in those wrecks of antiquity which time has not destroyed.

‘ Are the three figures of Anchises, Eneas, and Ascanius, drawn with pig’s heads, and recently found at Herculaneum, any thing but caricatures?

‘ Can there be a better, or more laughable caricature than the painting upon an Etruscan vase, published by Winckelman, where we see Jupiter carrying a ladder, in order to get into Alcmene’s bed-chamber, through the window, whilst Mercury officiously holds the lanthorn, to give light to this nocturnal adventure?

‘ It is, in fact, to the true restorers of the art of painting, Michael Angelo and Leonardo da Vinci, that we are indebted for the first caricatures that have appeared in modern times. It was in one of the whimsical movements of his pencil, in which his unruly imagination often indulged, that Michael painted, for the Italian comedy, the revels of Punchinello and Harlequin; an extravagant composition, in which, nevertheless, one may, in certain points, recognize the painter of the “Last Judgment.”

‘ I do not believe that the Italians, in this branch of the art, found any imitators in France before the end of the 16th century; an era

at which appeared the famous "Procession of the League." The painter of this ingenious and forcible raillery is unknown; but it gave the death-blow to that political monster.

' The talent of caricature consists in perceiving and in catching with facility the real foible, or sentiment, that may exist with respect to any object or particular circumstance, and then carrying it to that point of exaggeration, which, without destroying the resemblance, shall yet have the effect of rendering it ridiculous. What is particularly required in the sketcher of such compositions is *wit*; but that kind of wit in which malice and gaiety are the principal ingredients, seasoned almost always with a little absurdity.

' Caricature has this in common with parody, which it also resembles much in other respects — that it always succeeds best in proportion as it is exercised upon the most elevated objects, whether physical or moral, and as it shocks probability by making truth ridiculous.

' There are very few great painters who have not, at times, indulged in this vein; but as they always have attached very little importance to those scratchings, so their names have seldom been handed down with those ephemeral productions, whose existence has only been prolonged by the talent with which they were executed.

' Guichi and Callot have nevertheless found out the secret of establishing a solid reputation upon this very slight basis; and in the works of the latter artist we find such a number of figures, so fantastic, grotesque, and original, that they have become almost proverbial in painting. His "Temptation of St. Anthony" is a rich mine, from whence the most eminent painters have not been ashamed to draw forth hints, which they have only had the trouble of improving according to their subjects.

' An attempt to caricature the history of France might begin about the time of the Orleans regency. Some amateurs have yet preserved a few of the caricatures of that period, which are not less marked by the spirit and originality of their composition, than by the great licences which they take with respect to their subject.

' It is true that scandalous anecdotes of similar import accuse the Prince of great irregularities; but his extraordinary worth is more particularly attested. The author of the *Philippics* in verse was imprisoned during a long period, whilst the artist who executed the *Philippics* in caricature was never inquired after. This difference of treatment to two people guilty of the same offence, may be understood from the character of the Prince himself: the author of the verses had calumniated his heart; the caricaturist merely laughed at his foibles.

' The reign of Lewis XV. was fertile in caricatures; his mistresses, many of his generals, and some of his ministers afforded too much sport for the malignant, to be permitted to pass free from censure. In one of those caricatures, a fish-woman is represented paying her compliments to a gay dame in a court-dress, upon whose train was written, "The barrel always smells of the herring." In another, lawyers were seen riding upon asses, on the road to Pontoise. The song of "La Bouronnaise" furnished upwards of twenty caricatures, in which the fair favourite of the day was not spared; whilst the Je-

suits,

suits, the Insurgents, the Anglomaniacs, the Plenary Court, &c. were all subjects upon which the fabricators of epigrams, vaudevilles, and caricatures made a happy exercise of their art.

‘ A person of a pleasing and ready talent took it into his head, not less than thirty years ago, to collect, in the galleries and in the gardens of the Palais Royal, the portraits of all the most remarkable characters of that era, upon the plan of distinguishing each by caricaturing their dress, their manners, and their oddities. These designs of Dubucourt made a great noise at the time, and, at the present day, are in much request with collectors.

‘ The Revolution inundated France with a deluge of caricatures, in which every event of the passing day, every sitting of the National Assembly, every circumstance in the life of the principal deputies, were each, in their turn, exposed to public derision. Here, however, was plainly seen our inferiority in political caricature, in which the English far surpass us. That deficiency of taste, which yet represses their advance in the arts, so far from being an obstacle to them in this respect, is actually the cause of their success. Without ever being checked by the fear of breaking through rules, of wounding propriety, or of insulting common sense, they give a full scope to their wandering imaginations, and produce laughable monstrosities with an unexampled fertility. The graver, as rapid as the pencil, again outdoes the imperfections of the drawing ; and amateurs of all ranks may, at a cheap rate, satisfy their respective tastes for burlesque representations.

‘ The completest collection of caricatures in Europe belongs to the Queen of England. The cabinet which this Princess has formed for them is entrusted to the care of a particular person, who has several others under his direction, each of whom has his specific department. It is worthy of notice, that amongst the numerous portfolios, in which are carefully classed and arranged innumerable engravings, there are several entirely filled with caricatures in which her Majesty is herself the subject of ridicule.

‘ It would be difficult to explain the inferiority of our caricatures, when compared with the English, in a task which, above all things, seems to require the qualities which distinguish the French character ; such as gaiety, vivacity, and the capacity of understanding and feeling the ridiculous. I would wish even to derive something honourable to our urbanity, and to our natural goodness of heart, from the superiority that our neighbours possess over us on this score ; but what good is there in concealing the truth ? — Our painters are not yet rich enough to pay flatterers !

‘ For these fifteen years, Martinet’s shop, the very museum of caricatures, has not offered ten to public view that deserve to be noticed. Buonaparte was not born in a joking humour ; he knew that his authority must fall as soon as folks began to laugh at him ; and for that reason he never afforded us any opportunity for gaiety. The graver enjoyed no more liberty than the pen ; and the lynx-eyed Argus of censorship kept as sharp a look-out upon engravings as upon books. Our designers were therefore constrained to confine their sketches to the costume of the day ; and in that particular walk of the art, the collections of incredibles, wonderfals, and of supreme bou-
ton,

are sought after, as memorials of our fashions, so much the more valuable, because that our most celebrated artists did not disdain to apply their talent to that pursuit.'

No. x. describes the Turkish garden at Paris. xi. A dialogue of the dead, which satirizes the versatility of the Parisian journalists. xii. *Tablets, by a man of the world.* This paper includes an anecdote of *Duclos*, who wrote a novel called *Acajou*, adapted to a set of prints engraved for another work, of which the manuscript was suppressed. No. xiii., on literary property, advocates the proposition that copy-rights ought to be perpetual in the families of authors, and not to expire after five, ten, or fifteen years. No. xiv. *The Birth-day, and the day after*, is an excellent satire on profusion, wholly founded on French manners. xv. Moral pathology. The author hints that, during the revolutionary period, the tendency was to madness and phrenzy, but that now it is to imbecillity. This is not quite a prudent admission for a royalist. The health of the women has suffered less than that of the men: but they are attacked with vertigoes, which terminate in mysticism. No. xvi. attaches to a romantic anecdote the true description of the establishment for nurses at Paris. No. xvii., which disserts on mendicity, praises the Count of *Pontecoulant*; who, while prefect of the department of the Dyle, instituted at Brussels a refuge for the destitute, and succeeded in abolishing there the practice of begging. xviii. A defence of some institutions of *Bonaparte*, of which the more violent royalists had urged the suppression; such as the Polytechnic school, the National Institute, and the Repository for Models of Mechanism. No. xix. Anecdotes of courtiers. No. xx. depicts with comic truth of nature a journey in a French Diligence. xxi. The disappointments of a noble provincial, from ignorance of the hours of Paris. xxii. A history of two royalist-brothers involved in opposite revolutionary circumstances; and No. xxiii. of two cousins jacobinically disposed, whose career diverges not less fatally. No. xxiv. continues the story begun in number twenty-one, and indemnifies the noble provincial for his disappointments by an agreeable marriage. xxv. On the Foundling Hospital of Paris: it receives indiscriminately, and without recommendation, all forsaken and exposed children; the London hospital with that title does not merit its name. *Vincent de Paul* founded the Parisian institution; in which it is remarkable that the number of deserted children was greatly less during the Revolution than before.—The twenty-sixth and concluding paper contains the memoirs of a footman, who served a variety of masters during the twenty-five years of the revolutionary period.

This publication contains many pictures of French nature, which are instructive for their fidelity, peculiarity, and locality.

The

The manners of foreign countries, in the classes least exposed to indiscriminate intercourse, can in no way so amusingly be studied, as in anecdotic sketches of middle life painted by a sensible native observer. All the delineations have not equal vivacity and merit; and perhaps it would have been better to make a selection of the more interesting, than to translate the entire book for English perusal. The former lucubrations of this *Hermit* would also supply several agreeable papers; and thus the beauties of the *French Tatler* might be imported, without a needless appendage of local frivolities.

Books of this kind are often truly useful. Without the expence, or the danger, of theatrical dissipation, the corrective influence of good comedy is insensibly exerted by the Steeles and Addisons, the *Bruyeres* and *J——* *. To every-day-manners they apply the gentlest sneer of ridicule, and brush from our habits their apparent stains with the softest whisk of satire. The figures are indicated in a mirror: but we guess where the reflection originates; and thus the laziness of the social man is best aroused to practise every neatness of decorum, and every polish of propriety.

The two English volumes contain the entire work: but, as we have intimated, one of the two would have sufficed to furnish all the papers which can be interesting in this country. The translation is executed with fidelity, though not with remarkable skill. In Number xv. for instance, (Vol. i. p. 207.) the substitution of the word *folly*, for the word *imbecility* which occurs in the original, has blunted the point of an acute epigrammatic hint. In number xviii. mention is made of pyramidal bee-hives; the use of which, in preference to round hives, has been defended by M. *Ducouedic* in his *Journées de l'Homme des Champs*. — The travelled reader will peruse these volumes with frequent gratification.

ART. VII. *Contes, Nouvelles, &c.*; i. e. Tales, Novels, and other posthumous Pieces of *Gottlieb Conrad Pfeffel*, of the Royal Prussian Academy, and Member of the Society of Sciences and Arts of the Upper and Lower Rhine. Translated from the German; preceded by a dedicatory Letter to M. *Châteaubriand*; and followed by Reflections on the present State of the Press and the Literature of France. By M. MÉHÉE DE LA TOUCHE. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

M. MÉHÉE DE LA TOUCHE is not unknown either in the literary or the political world: he published at Hamburg an account of his intercourse with the British office for

* The address to the reader, in this publication, is signed E. J. foreign

foreign affairs; and he threw an unwelcome and disagreeable light on many transactions connected with the negotiations of Mr. Drake at Munich. The same sarcastic jacobinical tone of commentary, which accompanied his former effusions, continues to creak from his pen; and he now attacks the *Reflexions Politiques sur quelques Ecrits du Jour*, lately published by *Chateaubriand*, with all his inveterate hostility to the favourers of royalty. He is probably afraid, however, of drawing too much attention to these political effusions, and has very singularly attached them as head and tail-pieces to a translation from the German of some tales, or novellets, of *Pfeffel*. The first half of the first volume is a repulse of *Chateaubriand's* attack on the writings of the regicides; and the second half is a romantic story, of which the scene lies in Scotland. The first half of the second volume is a sentimental pathetic correspondence between German lovers; and the second half is a critical commentary on the new constitutional law respecting the liberty of the press at Paris. This union of wire and feather, or of lead and cork, is imitated seemingly from the angler: but, whether the author hopes to catch custom or connivance by it, we are at a loss to guess. Is it to sell or to shelter his book, that dull politics are coupled with amusing tales, or that bold politics are streaked over with a tinsel of frivolity?

For the use of English readers, no one will think of translating the introductory letter to M. *Chateaubriand*: who is more than the *Salmasius* of the new Miltonic controversy, and will not be written down by the unpruned quill of M. MÉHÉE. Neither can the argument in behalf of the liberty of the press be of importance in this country; because it chiefly censures a specific law wholly different from our own. We shall therefore content ourselves with noticing the two little romances of *Pfeffel*.

This German author is a younger brother of the *Frederic Pfeffel* who is so well known in the diplomatic world. He was born at Colmar, educated partly at Friburg and partly at Strasburg, and, after having completed his studies in the university, was attacked with an ophthalmia, which progressively deprived him of sight. He has written tales both in verse and prose, which display a cultivated fancy and a feeling heart: but he died at an early age, regretted by genius and affection. One of these tales is intitled *Matilda*. The heroine is a Scottish heiress, whom her uncle, a widower, is endeavouring to marry under a papal dispensation: but the young lady is not in love with her guardian, and elopes from his house to assume in Argyle-shire the disguise of a farmer's daughter. The young Duke of Argyle sees her, and, to facilitate access, pretends to

be only a huntsman of the duke ; when the parties, mutually unknown, fall vehemently in love with each other. Meanwhile, the king makes arrangements to marry his ward, the Duke of Argyle, to Matilda, the niece of Malcolm Dunbar, and applies for the uncle's co-operation. The young parties are consulted, and refuse each other for their unknown favourite : but at length they meet at court, and discover that their reciprocal attachment had anticipated the king's wishes.

The fable of this novel is ingenious, and the interest is continually progressive ; except that the catastrophe is too circumstantially related, and with too many details which are foreseen. The local colouring is not good, and is indeed better suited for Devonshire than for the remote north. If something more of military agency had been interspersed, this adventure, however, would be well adapted for poetry. We recommend it to the attention of Mr. Walter Scott ; he is usually unfortunate in the structure of his story, and seldom renders his plot sufficiently distinct, compact, finished, and critical : but his poetic colouring has the vivacity and rapidity of vision, while his poetic language possesses the euphony and sympathy of music ; and though, like Ariosto, his course bewilders, his path delights. Here, the design or fable, which he is apt to neglect, is ready made and well constructed ; and only the colouring, which he executes so ably, requires to be perpetually enlivened.

The other of these German romances bears the title of *Adolphus and Rosina*. The heroine is the only daughter of a rich farmer, who attends for instruction a school-master in the neighbouring village, and falls in love with his son Adolphus : but the lady's father, having other views, contrives that the young man shall be kidnapped by a Prussian recruiting serjeant. He then proposes to his daughter a young inn-keeper, whom she steadily refuses. Meanwhile, Adolphus acquires military distinction, and forms a friendship with the noble proprietor of the farmer's estate, by whose good offices all obstacles are removed, and the lovers are made happy. This tale is better related than the first, and abounds more with traits of manners, pathetic effusions, various characters, and pictures of German peculiarity.

ART. VIII. *Discours, &c.; i. e.* A Discourse on the Question, "What are the Means of rendering Theatres conducive to Public Morality and Taste?" By A. DELPLA. 12mo. pp. 40. Paris. 1814.

THIS short but elegant dissertation was crowned last year by the Academy of Bourdeaux, as containing the best answer to their prize-question, "What are the wisest methods of rendering theatrical exhibitions conducive to the amelioration of taste and of morals?" The author begins by observing that a partiality for *spectacle* and for mimicry is instinctive in the human animal; and that the savage nations, as well as the most civilized, have their shows and dances, their farcical and their magical performances. He then traces the gradual evolution of rude song and pantomime into tragedy and comedy.

That exhibitions of every kind tend to evolve, to strengthen, and to unfold the sympathetic emotions, is notorious: but, although the feelings of a multitude have naturally for their object the well-being of that multitude, in some cases the display of them becomes exceptionable. Aristophanes, for instance, sometimes excites the lewd and sometimes the seditious passions, in a degree that is dangerous to public morality and order. Hence, in the present author's estimation, the necessity of some controul of the magistrate over the pieces that are to be represented. He is not of opinion that the good sense of the people can be trusted with the censorship of the theatre, or that they would desert the immoral and hiss the seditious plays: he thinks, on the contrary, that a dramatic board, or academy of theatrical judges, should every where exist. These play-house critics are to consist of poets, reviewers, retired actors, or other men of letters, habituated to such studies; and they are to cause the whole theatrical literature to be written anew, so as to preserve all that is beautiful, to omit all that is exceptionable, and to import all that is instructive. Every violation of historic truth and of local costume is to be discarded; and all catastrophes in which virtue is made ridiculous, or vice triumphant, are to be reformed on the severer principle of final retribution. — Thus the theatre is to be made to rival the pulpit in purity, and to surpass it in efficacy of instruction; and bishops themselves are to display their exemplary presence in the side-boxes.

We think that this agreeable little pamphlet well deserves to be translated for insertion in some of our periodical publications; the editors of which are not always sufficiently alert and attentive in sending over to the Continent for supplies of fresh and fashionable trifles of literature.

ART. IX. *Archives des Découvertes, &c.; i. e. Archives of the Discoveries and New Inventions made in the Sciences, Arts, and Manufactures, both in France and in foreign Countries, during the Year 1813.* 8vo. pp. 482. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

IT is scarcely necessary to say that this volume proceeds on the same plan with those which have before come under our notice, and may be regarded as an exact continuation of them*. The contents of it are first divided into three sections, viz. *Sciences, Fine Arts, and Mechanical Arts*; and these sections are subdivided into a great number of heads, corresponding with the different subjects that are treated. The section on the Sciences contains the following subjects: natural history, natural philosophy, chemistry, medicine and surgery, pharmacy, mathematics, rural and domestic economy, and the veterinary art; and natural history is again divided into geology, zoology, botany, and mineralogy.

The work commences with an abstract of a paper by M. *Lesglet*; on the differences of the earthy strata, and the several epochs of their formation. The author particularly points out the effects of volcanoes, and of alluvial depositions, and afterward dwells on the singular discoveries that have been made respecting fossil animal remains. He makes, also, some interesting observations on the variations which distinguish the two hemispheres, and which, he conceives, throw considerable light on the nature of the revolutions which the globe has experienced. He remarks that ‘the difference in the extent and temperature of the two oceans, the form of the continents, the excess of the southern degrees over the corresponding degrees of our hemisphere, the inequality of the different meridians at the same distances from the same pole, the depression of the calcareous mountains towards the north and towards the equator, the rarity of the same substance in the southern hemisphere, &c. &c. all these irregularities seem to be derived from the same causes.’ Of these causes he points out two: 1st, the difference between the inferior and the superior tides; 2d. the alternate acceleration and retardation of our planet, and the long revolution of the poles of the equator round the poles of the ecliptic. These grand causes of revolution are not supposed to supersede the effect of the less causes, which are every where acting on a more confined scale; and the oscillation of a part of the ocean, from one hemisphere to the other, may alone explain the greatest number of the known facts. The idea, that each of the hemispheres is alternately subject to this kind of submersion, during the space of many ages, seems to be a cause of sufficient

* See our Appendix to Vol. lxxi. N. S.

magnitude to account for any supposable change, which we behold on the surface of the globe; and, without suffering ourselves to be blindly led by a conjectural hypothesis, it may be desirable to bear it in mind, and observe how far it accords with existing phænomena.

An account of *M. Cuvier's* discoveries respecting the bones of quadrupeds found in the interior of the earth next follows; and they must be ranked among the most extraordinary and important that have occurred in modern times: but, as we apprehend that they are well known to most of our readers, we shall not enlarge on them in this place. *M. Charpentier's* account of the granitic earth of the Pyrenees succeeds; and afterward two papers on some remarkable tabular cavities which exist in St. Peter's hill near Maëstricht. They are described by *M. Mathieu* under the title of geological organ-pipes, from their peculiar figure: but he seems at a loss to account for their formation. *M. Gillet-Laumont* supposes them to have been formed by the water, that formerly covered the strata in which they exist, displacing some soft or loose materials, and filtering through the mass. Tubes of this description are not confined to the neighbourhood of Maëstricht, and it is conceived that their formation may be all referred to the same cause.

Two papers occur on Zoology; one by *M. Marcel de Serres*, on the use of the different parts of the intestinal tubes of insects; and one by *M. Delaroche*, on the influence which the temperature of the air exercises in the chemical phænomena of respiration. The principal object of *M. Marcel de Serres* was to ascertain whether any insects possess the property of re-animation, properly so called; a question which he decides in the negative. — *M. Delaroche* has performed a set of experiments, the results of which shew that the chemical effects of respiration are not in proportion to the frequency of the motions of the lungs; since, when animals are in warm temperatures, and respire the most frequently, the least change is effected in the air. This observation, however, refers only to animals with warm blood; it being found that, in cold-blooded animals, the quantity of oxygen that disappears is in proportion to the temperature in which the body is immersed. — The section on Mineralogy consists principally of an account of a number of individual minerals that have been lately discovered or examined.

Many interesting subjects are introduced in the article of Natural Philosophy. We have an analysis of *M. Biot's* discoveries of the physical properties newly remarked in the molecules of light; — of papers by *M. Bourgeois*, on the laws which the colours produced by the refraction of light observe,

in their combinations with each other; —by M. *Flauguergues*, on the diffraction of light, and likewise on the transmission of light through transparent media; —by M. *Morichini*, on the magnetic force of the extreme edge of the violet rays; —by Count *Rumford*, on the mode of determining the quantity of heat, which is developed in the combustion of different substances; —by M. *Ostman*, on the use of confined air for the preservation of heat; —by M. *Dessaigues*, on the phosphorescence of compressed gases; —by MM. *Delaroche* and *Berard* on the specific heat of the gases; —by Mr. Walker, on barometrical prognostics; —by Mr. Singer, on the nature of falling stars; —by Mr. Reid, on compensating pendulums, with observations on the same by M. *Guyton de Morveau*.

The subjects of several of these memoirs are probably known to our scientific readers. One of the most important, at least as to its effects on chemical hypothesis, is that of the paper on the specific heat of the gases. MM. *Delaroche* and *Berard* have been led to the following results, from a train of experiments which seem to have been carefully conducted. 1. The specific heat of the gases is not the same in all of them, with respect either to their volume or their weight. 2. The specific heat of atmospheric air, considered in relation to its volume, augments with the density; consequently, in relation to masses, it diminishes in proportion as the density augments. 3. For equal volumes, the specific heat of the gases is scarcely any, compared with that of solids or liquids. 4. Aqueous vapour has a specific heat less than that of water: but this conclusion is drawn from an experiment which is admitted to be very delicate and very difficult to perform. 5. The specific heats of the compounds do not bear an exact ratio to that of their component parts: which is exemplified in the case of water; the specific heat of the mixture of oxygen and hydrogen that would compose water being 0.63, while that of water is assumed as 1. 6. From the low specific heat of oxygenous gas, it will be very difficult to explain by a change of specific heat the warmth which is disengaged in combustion.

Under the head of Chemistry, many important articles are enumerated; viz. the detonating substance discovered by M. *Dulong*, which appears to be a compound of oxymuriatic acid and azote, produced by passing a stream of oxymuriatic acid through a dilute solution of an ammoniacal salt; —M. *Vogel's* account of the action of solar light on phosphorus; —Mr. Hutton's experiments on the congelation of mercury; —M. *Gay-Lussac's* observations on *Fabroni's* and *Brande's* experiments on the existence of alcohol in wine, which lead him to coincide with Mr. Brande in the opinion that the alcohol is formed during ferment-

fermentation; — M. *Groven-Kemp*'s observations on the black fluid discharged from the sepia; — M. *Vauquelin*'s experiments on *Lampadius*'s sulphuret of carbon; — M. *Thenard*'s remarks on the hydro-sulphurets; — M. *Sementini*'s experiments on potassiated hydrogen gas; — Professor *Berzelius*'s account of the analysis of the human blood, &c. &c.

The section on Medicine and Surgery is rather scanty; the most important articles appearing to be an abstract of some experiments on digestion, by M. *de Montègre*, and of those of Mr. Brodie on the influence of the brain in the production of animal heat. With Mr. Brodie's opinions our readers are already acquainted, from our review of the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, in which the papers were published. M. *de Montègre* supposes that the gastric juice owes its antiseptic quality to a degree of acidity which it acquires; and that, when it is not acid, it becomes putrid like saliva. It does not, however, appear that the gastric juice is essentially different from the saliva, or that it possesses any solvent power in its own nature. This acidity, which is derived from the stomach independently of the gastric juice, would seem to be the most important agent in digestion. As we are not in possession of the experiments from which these conclusions are drawn, we ought not to speak decidedly on the subject: but the impression which is made by the abstract is not very favourable. — We have also an analysis of the meconium by M. *Bouillon-Lagrange*, the chief peculiarity of which consists in its always containing a quantity of hairs. — The article *Pharmacy* consists of some analyses, which are not very important in their relation to general science.

In the section on Mathematics, we find a long account of a portable apparatus for measuring and surveying land, invented by M. *Pictet*; which appears to be both very complete and very convenient, but which it would occupy too much room to describe in this place. We have likewise notices of some astronomical papers, by M. *Delambre*, on comets; by M. *Flaugergues*, on the planet Mars; by M. *Pons*, on two new comets; and others of less importance.

Several articles are given under the head of Rural and Domestic Economy; of which the following are the subjects of some of the most material. A description of a new machine for sowing corn; — a method of extirpating rushes from marshes that have been drained, which consists in pouring on the roots the refuse of the manufacture of soda; — a description of a new kind of plough-share; — and an easy and cheap method of remedying the mischief done by hail to the young hemp-plants. This method, which is proposed by M. *Sennini*, consists

sists in merely cutting off the plants a little below the part at which they had received the injury; and, on making a fair experiment, we are informed, they seemed even to grow with additional vigour after the operation. — Several papers occur on the potatoe, in which different modes of drying the tubers are proposed, in order to preserve them for a length of time; or of separating their farina, for the purpose of employing it as a substitute for flour. Our more extensive experience in the use of this valuable root does not induce us to place much confidence in any of these proposals, considered in an economical point of view.

Section ii., on the Fine Arts, is very brief: but the third, on the Mechanical Arts, occupies about half the volume. It embraces 57 different subjects, and several of these are composed of more than one article. Among other objects, which occupied a large share of attention in France when this volume was written, are the preparation of sugar from the beet-root, on which we meet with four essays; and a proposal to substitute chesnuts for coffee, by that celebrated chemist, *Lampadius*. Our continental neighbours will no doubt be glad to acquire their sugar and coffee from the usual sources; since, although it must be confessed that much ingenuity has been shewn in their attempts to procure them from other quarters, it does not appear that any thing is likely to supersede the sugar-cane and the coffee-tree. As the articles in the last division are not, for the most part, of very great individual importance, we shall not extend this notice by particularizing any of them. They present an interesting view of the active spirit of the French, in their attempts at the improvement of the different mechanical arts: but the general impression, which they give us, is that few of them are likely to prove of any very extensive advantage.

We close this article by a remark which we made on a former occasion, that the volume, although professing to give an account of the improvements in other countries besides France, must be considered as very imperfect in that respect.

ART. X. *Précis de la Doctrine, &c.; i. e. A Summary of Christian Doctrine, established by the Text of Holy Scripture.* 12mo. pp. 160.. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 4s. sewed.

A SUFFICIENT explanation of the origin, object, and authority of this little work is given in the prefixed advertisement: whence we learn that 'the Consistory of the Christian church, according to the Augsburg Confession, at Paris, having for the benefit of the children of families belonging to this communion established

established a school of religion, became desirous of putting into the hands of their pupils a collection of passages from the Holy Scriptures, disposed in methodical order, and adapted to inculcate a knowledge of the principal truths and duties of Christianity. For this purpose, the members of the Consistory requested the pastors of this church to undertake the compilation of such an elementary work, and afterward to submit their manuscript to the examination of the Directory of the General Consistory of the Confession of Augsburg sitting at Strasburg. The work which now appears bears the sanction of the Directory.' — We are farther informed that the version from which the several texts are principally quoted is that of Osterwald, but that occasionally other versions have been consulted, particularly that of Geneva.

The doctrinal part contains nine sections, the titles of which are, 1. Of the Existence of God and of Revelation ; — 2. Of the Nature and Perfections of God ; — 3. Of Creation and Providence ; — 4. Of Man, his Nature, and Destination ; — 5. Of Redemption ; — 6. Of Sanctification ; — 7. Of the Church ; — 8. Of the Sacraments ; — 9. Of the Resurrection and Eternal Life.

In the section on the Church, the principles of Protestantism are strongly inculcated. The first tenet on this point is that ' the church established to perpetuate the doctrine of salvation is the union of the disciples of the Redeemer in one religious society, and has for its founder and only chief, Jesus Christ.' — ' The doctrine of the Gospel does not require of pastors the renunciation of any of their civil rights, such for instance as that of marriage, but rather requires them to practise it as a means of edifying the church by the example of their virtue ; — it moreover orders them to regard themselves in their functions *as equals*, and as the servants of Christ ; interdicting among them the spirit of domination. 1 Tim. iii. 2. 4, 5. Matt. xxiii. 8. 11. and 1 Peter, v. 2, 3. are the texts quoted in support of the above stated tenet. Though, however, the church ordains that its pastors shall regard each other on a perfect equality as brethren, it is added in a note that, ' for the benefit of preaching the Gospel and for the maintenance of discipline, it is necessary that an hierarchy or ecclesiastical government should be established ; ' so that the perfect equality in the priesthood, which is stated in the doctrine, is set aside by the potent operation of necessity. We are referred back to the time of Constantine the Great, when this ecclesiastical government commenced : but it does not seem to have occurred to the members of the Consistory, or General Directory of the Protestant church according to the Augsburg Confession, that the decrees of a Roman emperor should not be placed on a par with

with the injunctions of Christ and his Apostles ; or, rather, they seem inclined to avail themselves of the civil power in strengthening ecclesiastical authority. Thus we find them inculcating, in the very teeth of Christ's own assertion, " My kingdom is not of this world," that ' the successors of Constantine were born its protectors ; and that the Augsburg Confession, with a reference to this antient usage, proclaims the chiefs of the state to be the chiefs also of ecclesiastical jurisdiction.' This junction of secular and spiritual power has been found very convenient ; and, if nothing can be discovered to authorize it in the discourses of Christ, the reason, truly, is that he foresaw that, whenever his followers became respectable in point of numbers and riches, they would have good sense enough to give religion a respectable exterior, by exchanging her rags and her caves for costly robes and splendid palaces : while priests, of their own accord, without any hint from him, would find out that ecclesiastical authority was a very tame and vapid piece of business unless seasoned with the *sauce piquant* of secular power.

To an exhibition of the *Duties of a Christian*, the second part of this Summary is appropriated. It contains five sections in the following order: 1. Of Morality in general ; — 2. Of the Duties which we owe to God ; — 3. Of the Duties which we owe to each other ; — 4. Of the Duties towards our Neighbour ; — and 5. under the head of *Special Duties* are enumerated those of Sovereigns and Magistrates, — of Subjects, — of Pastors, — of the Faithful, or Members of Churches, — of Husbands and Wives, — of Parents and Children, — of Masters and Servants, — of the Young and the Old, — of the Sick and Dying: to which are added duties which we owe to the dead, and to animals. On these two last heads, the pupils of the Augsburg school are exhorted ' to mourn for the dead, to honour their ashes, to respect their memory, and to comfort themselves with the thought that they are gone to receive the reward of their good works.' As to the brute creation, the children are taught that it is their duty to treat them with care ; and to consider their instincts as furnishing motives for the praise of God. — We notice with satisfaction this last article in the enumeration of Christian Duties ; and we hope that, in all our summaries of ethics, it will obtain a distinct place.

In order to assist the piety of the children of Christian families, some forms of occasional prayer and of graces before and after meat are subjoined.

ART. XI. *Traité d'Economie Politique, &c.; i. e.* A Treatise on Political Economy, or a plain Exposition of the Manner in which Riches are formed, distributed, and consumed. Second Edition, entirely new modelled, and augmented by an Epitome of the fundamental Principles of Political Economy. By JOHN BAPTISTE SAY, Ex-Member of the Tribunate. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s. sewed.

AT its primary appearance, we were not slow in announcing this performance to the public ; and we hailed it as the best attempt that had been made (with which we were acquainted) to reduce the principles of Dr. Adam Smith into a system. In the new edition, the plan continues to be the same, but its execution is far more masterly. With respect to authorship, indeed, the present and the former volumes are wholly different things ; and, although the design in the one and the other be alike, the latter are abundantly more consummate as well in matter as in manner.

The first edition saw the light under the reign of Napoleon, but before (as it would seem) his tyranny had reached its ultimate height, since no obstruction was made to its circulation ; but his jealous despotism would not allow a second edition of it to be published ; and the author tells the Emperor Alexander, to whom he dedicates these volumes, ‘ that for ten years he had been obliged to conceal his work as if it had been a crime.’ These ten years, however, were not finally lost, since M. SAY employed this long period in improving it ; and, in fact, he recast it, newly arranged it, lopped off redundances, and made most material additions. In its present state, it is accompanied by a copious analytical table, and a lucid and judicious epitome of the fundamental principles of political economy. The preliminary discourse is extended to twice its original length, and the entire treatise has undergone a new form. Yet, on the whole, the performance is contracted. The definitions are laid down with greater precision and distinctness ; the principles of the science are more clearly developed ; its doctrines are more happily illustrated ; the terms used are more choice ; and the language is throughout more neat and elegant. The author takes occasion more frequently to refute the errors of the economists, and he does it more pointedly ; very successfully exposing their paradoxes, and laying open their subtilities. In short, he has converted that which was before plain and unpretending into a finished classical performance. Seldom we believe have so much pains been taken to improve a production which had been once submitted to the public ; and still more seldom has this been done with so good an effect as in the present instance.

Of the additional matter in the preliminary discourse, a part consists of an account of the advances which the Italian writers had made in political economy, previously to the publication of the *Wealth of Nations*; with a compendious enumeration of the leading errors which did not escape the author of that great work, and of the points which he had imperfectly treated.

It is observed by M. SAY that

‘ On all subjects, example has been before hand with precept. The happy enterprizes of the Portuguese and Spaniards of the 15th century, the active industry of Venice, of Genoa, of Florence, and of Pisa, of the provinces of Flanders, and of the free cities of Germany, directed by little and little the attention of philosophers towards the theory of riches.

‘ Italy had in this department the initiative; which, since the revival of letters, it has had in most branches of knowledge and in the fine arts. As early as the year 1613, *Antonio Serra* published a treatise, in which he discoursed of the productive power of industry: but the very title of his work indicated its errors. In his conception, gold and silver alone constituted riches. *Davanzati* wrote on money and exchanges at the commencement of the 18th century, fifty years before *Quesnoi*. *Bandini*, of Siena, proved from reasoning and experience, that famine never has occurred but in countries in which the government interposed in provisioning the people. *Belloni*, a banker of Rome, in 1750, wrote a Dissertation on Commerce, which shews him to have been well skilled in the subjects of exchanges and money: but he insists on the balance of commerce. However, in reward for his attempts, the Pope made him a Marquis. *Carli*, who preceded Smith, asserted that the balance of commerce taught and proved nothing. *Algarotti* wrote also on political economy; and the little which he has left on this subject manifests consummate knowledge and talents. In his investigations he keeps so close to facts, and relies so invariably on the nature of things, that, without arriving at the proof and connection of his principles, he was able to guard himself against every idea that was founded on false systems. In 1764, *Gerroveni* commenced a course of political economy, in a chair founded at Naples by the respectable and learned *Intieri*. In 1750, the Abbé *Galliani*, since so well known by his Dialogues on the Commerce of Grain, published a Treatise on Money, which exhibits great talents and very superior knowledge. We find, however, in this tract, only the kinds of merit which this author has always subsequently displayed, viz. genius and great erudition, a due regard in his inquiries to the nature of things, and an animated and elegant style. In this treatise, *Galliani* inculcates a principle of Dr. Smith; namely, that labour solely gives value to things; a maxim which, though not absolutely true, throws the greatest light on production.’

The author states his reason for thinking that this tenet of the Italian was not known to the Scottish philosopher, when he published his great work. He mentions also *Beccaria*, *Verri*, and *Filangieri*,

Filangieri, as having made near approaches, on particular points, to Dr. Smith: while, in the present not less than in the former edition, he ascribes to our illustrious countryman the exclusive merit of being the discoverer and founder of the science of political economy.

Dr. Smith has erred in making human labour the sole cause of value, and in restricting the term *wealth* to value fixed in material substances: the first of which errors has affected the views which he takes of production, and has rendered them imperfect. Commerce, as concerned in production, is treated in a confused manner by Dr. Smith; and on the subject of the distribution of wealth he is equally defective. He is not more happy in what he says of its consumption. Thus, by not distinguishing the two sorts of consumption, the unproductive and the productive, he is not able satisfactorily to prove that the consumption of hoarded value is as real as that of value which is dissipated. M. SAY nevertheless observes that, the better political economy is understood, the better we shall appreciate the unspeakable services which Dr. Smith has rendered to the science.

From passages which occur in the same preliminary discourse, it may be inferred that the author is of opinion that, if due attention were paid to his favourite science, it would remedy the gross inequalities which at present prevail in most communities.

The position, that it is beneficent to hoard, which many still deem a paradox, is placed in a very clear light by what the author says in his chapter on the formation of capital, which is not to be found in the first edition of the work:

‘Be it,’ he says, ‘that what is saved is spent unproductively, or laid out productively; in either case it is spent, and consumed. It is not true, then, as it is generally thought, that nothing is saved without being hurtful to consumption. Every saving, provided it be replaced, does not diminish consumption; on the contrary, it occasions a consumption which renews itself in perpetuity, while an unproductive consumption is never renewed. This repeated employment of savings is not a heaping up of values, without consuming them; it is to withdraw them from a sterile consumption, in order to apply them to one that is productive. Savings presented under their true features offer to our view nothing that is odious, while they are attended with the most happy effects.’

In the very improved manner in which he treats of markets in the present edition, M. SAY shews that it is not money, but abundant produce, that occasions brisk and ready markets; and he thence draws the four following inferences: first, that, in every state, the more numerous are the producers, and the more multiplied the produce, the better will the markets be; — secondly, that each individual is interested in the prosperity of all,

all, or that the prosperity of one kind of industry is favourable to that of all others; — thirdly, that it is no prejudice to the industry of the natives of a particular state, to have foreign merchandise imported into it; — fourthly, that to encourage consumption is not to advance commerce, that they are bad administrations which promote consumption, and that such as are good encourage production. Under each of these heads, he enlarges in his usual manner. It were endless, however, to multiply examples of this kind: emendations such as the foregoing occur in all the parts of the work. If the praise which we bestowed on the former edition must be considered as principally applicable to the plan of the undertaking, we are warranted to extend our commendations of the present in an equal degree to its execution; and to assert that a complete treatise on the very important science of political economy is not now a *desideratum*.

The epitome which is here subjoined, and which is alphabetically arranged, is in our opinion a valuable appendage to a work of this kind. It is an abstract of the doctrines contained in the treatise; and each article is distinguished by clearness and conciseness.

ART. XII. *De la vraie Philosophie, &c.; i. e. A Discourse on True Philosophy*, which obtained the Prize of Eloquence decreed by the Society for Science, Agriculture, and Belles Lettres at Montauban, May 15. 1811. By HENRY DUVAL. 8vo. pp. 37. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2s.

PHILOSOPHY, how bitterly hast thou been calumniated, even in this age of science and extensive improvement! As if thou hadst been some fiend from hell, or the concentrated essence of all the Egyptian plagues, how fiercely hast thou been assailed both from the pulpit and the press: while to offer even the mildest plea in thy behalf has been considered as a symptom of jacobinism, if not of treason! Yet, after all the abuse which has been so lavishly bestowed on thee, thou scornest to “return railing for railing;” persuaded that thine accusers must eventually be overwhelmed with shame, and that thy splendour will burst through every cloud which ignorance or fear may raise to obscure it! — Had our glorious Newton lived in these days, what would he have said on hearing his divine philosophy vilified as pregnant with atheism and rebellion? At first he would have smiled, probably, at the ridiculous misapprehensions of the anti-philosophers; and then perhaps he would have replied, *The fool may have said in his heart that there is no God, but none except a fool would have said this.*

abis. Here is the real fact. Madness, misnamed philosophy, may blaspheme : but true science proclaims and adores a God*. It is high time, then, to put a stop to those insensate philippics against philosophy, which disgrace the age in which they are uttered ; and no farther to retard moral and intellectual improvement by holding up those as the enemies of man, who invite him diligently to inquire after truth. As well, indeed, may we charge the heaven-born and divinely amiable system of the Gospel with all the atrocities, massacres, and rebellions, which have been perpetrated by its pretended champions and followers, as criminate philosophy because some men, calling themselves philosophers, have endeavoured to turn the world upside down. True philosophy, like true religion, has for its object the amelioration of our condition ; they go hand in hand together ; and in proportion as kings and subjects adopt the lessons of both, will be the happiness of the world.

We were pleased to find that M. DUVAL, in his discourse illustrative of the nature of true philosophy, has taken this view of the subject. To give interest to the discussion, he supposes the venerable *Malesherbes* to be in fact the speaker ; and the substance of the discourse is little more than a repetition of those sentiments which that sage may be imagined to have delivered to his fellow-prisoners before he fell a sacrifice to revolutionary violence. This great man, being requested to declare by what certain marks the true philosophy can be known, replies to the question at some length ; and the observations which M. DUVAL puts into his mouth, if not exactly such as *Malesherbes* himself would have delivered, manifest discrimination, and have a good tendency. Thus the sage is supposed to address his fellow-sufferers by the French Revolution :

‘ Oh my friends, you have seen its ravages : they are frightful, perhaps irreparable ! Yet this catastrophe, which philosophy had foreseen, and would have prevented, the philosophers are charged with having brought on France ! — When deceived by the calmness of the ocean, the master of a vessel, spreading all his sails, neglects the helm, or leaves it to unskilful hands ; if an experienced mariner should be on board, and exclaim, “ What, wretched people, are you about ? You are sailing on a dangerous sea : here are perilous reefs, there fatal currents, change your course, or you are lost : ” — If the foolish crew, deaf to his voice, drive against the rocks, and if he himself, too late called to the helm, should make ineffectual efforts to save his miserable companions, with whom he is about to perish, — which of the crew would be madman enough to say to him, “ It is owing to thee that we are lost ? ” Not less insane are our accusers. Yes, the philosophers suggested wise reforms in the administration of public affairs, but never sought to obtain them by means of revolutions. They well knew that, in the moral as in

* “ An indevout Astronqmer is mad.” (YOUNG.)

the natural world, good is never effected but by slow degrees ; while all that is rapid, as floods, tempests, and lightning, overwhelms and destroys. — Rest assured, my unfortunate companions, that impartial posterity will do justice to our memory ; it will endeavour to ascertain the true causes of the Revolution and its excesses in a long succession of abuses, faults, and follies ; in the vices of a croud of institutions, the produce of ignorant times, which were not compatible with the state of modern civilization : — it will find in it elements prepared for the most brilliant and glorious epoch of our history.'

M. DUVAL proceeds from a defence of philosophy to eulogize it ; and we must confess that a most extensive and glorious field opens itself before him. To what do we owe all the improvements which elevate the social above the savage state of man, which have enabled us to discover the satellites and ring of Saturn, to measure the distance and magnitude of the heavenly bodies, to calculate eclipses, and to take observations at sea, for the purpose of ascertaining latitude and longitude ? To what do we owe the very pumps by which we raise the water from the well, the cranes on our wharfs, and the steam-engines in our manufactories and mines ? In short, would not every comfort vanish, if the benefits which we now derive from science could be suddenly taken from us ? Away, then, with all stupid exclamations against philosophy, or *the love of knowlege* ; which prepares for us all the elements of public and private felicity, and the vilifiers of which must always be suspected of having either weak heads or bad hearts.

ART. XIII. *Elémens de Calcul Différentiel, &c.* ; i. e. Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. By J. L. BOUCHARLAT, Professor of Transcendental Mathematics in the Division of Artillery at the Military Prytaneum. 8vo. pp. 256. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

ALTHOUGH this volume is founded on the model of *La Croix's* "*Traité Élémentaire de Calcul Différentiel*," &c. it enters less into the detail of principles. The author's view seems only to have been to render all the operations of analysis as concise as they can possibly be made, and in that respect he has succeeded, since we do not remember to have seen a work in which more matter is condensed into less space : but, with regard to what may be called the metaphysics of the science, it is certainly very defective, and is therefore by no means calculated for a person who is studying the subject without the assistance of a master. It is in fact adapted to the use of the upper classes in academies and places of public instruction, for which purpose we presume it was principally intended : it is also well calculated to initiate an English student, who has previously acquired

acquired a knowledge of fluxions, into the principles of the differential calculus. He will here find all the subjects that are commonly introduced into our treatises of fluxions, arranged in nearly the same order, but treated under different principles, and with a different notation; from which he will be able to form an opinion on the relative merits of the two methods. He will also here meet with several propositions which are never, or but slightly, mentioned by English authors. The chapter on the application of rational fractions to the integration of differentials is very complete; and the integration of functions of two variables is also, considering the limits to which the author has restricted himself, executed in a masterly manner. In the course of it, he adverts to and demonstrates the celebrated proposition of Euler, viz. "a function being given of any number of variables, to determine the conditions of integrability, and the method of integration when the equation is found to fulfil the required conditions."

In order to exhibit a specimen of the author's *modus operandi*, we shall select his demonstration of Taylor's theorem, from which he readily deduces that of Maclaurin. For this purpose it is first shewn that, if in any function y of x , the variable x is changed into $x + h$, we shall have the same differential coefficient when x is variable and h constant, as when h is variable and x constant: — that is, if $y' = \phi(x + h)$, we shall have

$$\frac{dy'}{dx} = \frac{dy'}{dh}; \quad \frac{d^2 y'}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 y'}{dh^2}; \quad \frac{d^n y'}{dx^n} = \frac{d^n y'}{dh^n}.$$

This is in fact obvious, independently of any demonstration. The author then proceeds:

' This being premised, let y' be a function of $x + h$; and this function being developed with regard to the powers of h , let us suppose it to become $y' = y + A h + B h^2 + C h^3 + \dots$, A, B, C , &c. being functions of the unknown quantity x , which are to be determined. To effect this, let us difference first with regard to h variable, and we shall have

$$\frac{dy'}{dh} = A + 2 B h + 3 C h^2 + \dots, \text{ \&c.}$$

Differencing then with regard to x variable, and dividing by dx , we obtain

$$\frac{dy'}{dx} = \frac{dy'}{dx} + \frac{dA}{dx} h + \frac{dB}{dx} h^2 + \dots, \text{ \&c.}$$

Now, since $\frac{dy'}{dx} = \frac{dy'}{dh}$, we have also

$$A = \frac{dy'}{dx}, \quad B = \frac{dA}{2 dx}, \quad C = \frac{dB}{3 dx}, \quad D = \frac{dC}{4 dx}, \text{ \&c.}$$

Substituting the value of A in the second, the value of B in the third, and

and so on, we have the following result; viz. $A = \frac{d y'}{d x}$, $B = \frac{d^2 y'}{1.2 d x^2}$

$C = \frac{d^3 y'}{1.2.3}$, &c. which values of A , B , C , &c. being substituted in the original series, we have

$y' = \phi(x+h) = y + \frac{d y}{d x} h + \frac{d^2 y}{1.2 d x^2} h^2 + \frac{d^3 y}{1.2.3 d x^3} h^3 +$, &c. which is the theorem of Taylor.'

Hence the author readily obtains the following:

$$f x = (f x) + \left(\frac{d f x}{d x} \right) x + \left(\frac{d^2 f x}{d x^2} \right) \frac{x^2}{1.2} + \left(\frac{d^3 f x}{d x^3} \right) \frac{x^3}{1.2.3} +, \&c.$$

where the quantities inclosed in the parentheses denote what $d f x$, $d^2 f x$, &c. become when $x = 0$, which is Maclaurin's theorem. This demonstration is the same in principle with that which is given by *La Croix* at page 22. of his "*Traité Élémentaire de Calcul Différentiel*," &c. — We have here again to notice a great imperfection, too common in French mathematical works; viz. an immense number of press-errors. We have made five corrections in the above short abstract; and in many pages we have found three, four, and five, errors, and in some even more. Page 13. contains five mistakes in the signs, in about ten lines. Were it not for this important defect, we should consider this little tract as well suited to the purpose for which it is designed.

ART. XIV. *Théorie Circonsphérique des deux Genres de Beau*, &c.; i. e. A comprehensive Theory of the two Kinds of the Beautiful; applied to all Mythologies and to the Five Fine Arts. By M. CORDIER DE LAUNAY. 8vo. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

THIS is a singular composition; and it contains a considerable portion of amusing knowlege. The object of the author is to prove that there are two sorts of the beautiful in the Fine Arts; that which he calls 'Exact Imitation,' and that to which he gives the name of the 'Composite, or Arbitrary Assemblage.' Man, he says, has two powers correspondent to these two species of beauty: the one, that of leaving to the forms of nature their own union, so that it presents a copy of one complete whole, of one really existing model; the other, that of extracting parts of different forms from various quarters, and, by a fanciful combination of them, making another species of whole, a composite and imaginary object. Such, with some abridgment and simplification, is the doctrine of M. CORDIER DE LAUNAY; and abundant cause for self-congratulation

gratulation he has discovered in this supposed new invention of criticism. His introduction, indeed, besides the *gasconading* to which we here allude, contains much *mystification*, and sublimity of the obscure kind, with which we shall not interfere; rather selecting his plainest illustration of his meaning, and then proceeding to give some account of the contents of the work.

‘In the poetry, the painting, and the mythological sculpture of the Greeks,’ he observes, ‘Apollo, Venus, and the Horses of the Sun, are objects exhibiting a beauty of the kind of ‘Exact Imitation,’—and the Centaur, the Sphinx, and the winged Pegasus, are objects exhibiting a beauty of the composite kind, or of the arbitrary assemblage.’ Sundry chapters follow in sharp metaphysical succession; and we have ‘sensations, climates, and mythologies,’ — *omne scibile*, in a word, — most rapidly, yet with sufficient clearness, examined and discussed. The origin of all religions is traced to the book of Genesis. — We have next an examination of the Iliad of Homer, as a specimen of the first sort of beauty; and of the Paradise Lost of Milton, and (will our readers believe it?) OF THE REVELATION OF ST. JOHN, as specimens of the second!!! After having touched on another example of this kind in the Scandinavian mythological poetry, the author turns to the theatre, and analyzes the *Œdipus* for his first order, and *Macbeth* for his second. We are pleased in being able to do justice to his general knowledge of the English language, a qualification not universally discoverable (as Mrs. Montague long ago happily demonstrated) in French critics when writing on our literature. Yet, in this analysis of *Macbeth*, we have the subjoined ludicrous translation of the address to the spirits of all colours, who are *permitted* to mingle in the fatal ceremonies: “*Spectres blancs, bleus, noirs, gris, s’écrient elles, mêléz, mêléz, mêléz, vous qui savez l’art des mélanges !*”

A curious abridgment and partial version of a Chinese play follows; the materials of which were extracted from the volumes of *Du Halde*. On this portion of the book, we shall dwell more at length, from its unusual and entertaining character; and we shall chuse a scene in the fourth act, in which the complicated plot of the drama is fully developed. The characters are a physician of the court, called Tching Yng, and his supposed son Tching Poëi; and the reader is to fancy one of those extraordinary scenes on the Chinese stage, which have two or three compartments, divided from each other by their sides, but all open in front to the audience. After having soliloquized in two of these rooms, the characters above mentioned come together :

‘ *Tching Yng.* — My son, I have long heard you speaking.

‘ *Tching Pœi.* — My father, I pray you to explain to me the paintings on this roll.

‘ *T. Y.* — Do you wish, my son, that I should explain these paintings to you? You know not what a share you have in them.

‘ *T. P.* — Explain it all as clearly as possible.

‘ *T. Y.* — Would you know all this history? It is rather long. This person dressed in red, and that person in black, were subjects of the same king, and mandarins at the same time. The one was a learned man, and the other a soldier. This made them enemies. The red reflected that he who begins is the strongest; and that delay renders every man inferior. He therefore secretly dispatched an assassin called *Tson Mi*, and ordered him to get into the palace of the black person, and murder him: but the black, being minister of state, was accustomed every evening to walk in his court, and pray to the maker of heaven and earth for the prosperity of the kingdom, without thinking of his own house in particular. The assassin, who saw and heard him, said to himself, “If I slay so good a mandarin, I shall act in direct opposition to heaven: I will not do it. If I return to him who sent me, I must die. Behold my resolution.” He had a hidden dagger about him: but, seeing so virtuous a mandarin, he repented of his design, opened his eyes to the light, and dashed his head against a cinnamon tree.’

A variety of sudden suicides, besides the present, occurs in the course of the play; and in the East, where so insignificant a value is set on life as we can hardly conceive, such representations, doubtless, would not shock either the belief or the feeling of the spectators. The long detail of *Tching Yng*, which follows, although abundantly curious in point of extravagant incident, and resembling an *Arabian Night's Entertainment* more than any thing else, is too prolix for our limits; and we must proceed to the more immediate business of the drama, as it is ingeniously and theatrically developed by means of the paintings in question, and the explanation of them which is given by the elder of the two characters introduced above.

‘ *Tching Pœi.* — My father, this person in red is an atrocious villain: what is his name?

‘ *Tching Yng.* — My son, I have forgotten his name.

‘ *T. P.* — And the one in black?

‘ *T. Y.* — He is *Tchao Tun*, minister of state. It affects you much, my son.

‘ *T. P.* — I have heard of such a man, but I heeded it not.

‘ *T. Y.* — My son, I tell you this in secrecy. Remember it well.

‘ *T. P.* — There are other pictures in this roll, which I beseech you to explain.

‘ *T. Y.* — The person in red deceived the king, and caused the whole house of *Tchao Tun* to be massacred, to the number of three hundred persons. *Tchao Tun* had only a single child left, called *Tchao So*, the son-in-law of the king. “The Red” counterfeited an order of the king, and sent him a halter, a cup of poison, and a dagger;

dagger; in order that he might choose by which he would die. The princess, his wife, was pregnant. Tchao So expressed to her his last wishes, and said, "If, after my death, you are brought to bed of a son, you will call him the Orphan of the House of Tchao; he will avenge our family." Having said this he seized the dagger, and put an end to his life. "The Red" turned the palace of the princess into a wretched prison; and in this prison her son was born. As soon as "The Red" heard it, he sent the General Han Koué to guard the prison, and to prevent the child from escaping. The princess had a faithful servant, called Tching Yng, who was a physician.

' *T. P.* — Is it not you, my father?

' *T. Y.* — How many are there in the world of the same name? The princess intrusted to him her little orphan, and strangled herself with her girdle. Tching Yng wrapped up the infant, inclosed it in his medicine chest, and approached the gate of the palace. Here Han Koué met him, and discovered the child. But Tching Yng spoke to him secretly, and Han Koué, seizing a knife, destroyed himself with it.

' *T. P.* — This General, who so nobly sacrifices his life for the house of Tchao, is a brave man: I will take care to remember that his name is Han Koué.

' *T. Y.* — Yes, yes, it is Han Koué. But see what is much worse. "The Red" soon heard this news. He ordered all the infants born in the kingdom, within six months, to be brought to him, designing to massacre them all; and by these means to rid himself of the Orphan of China.

' *T. P.* — (*Incensed.*) — Is there in the world so vile a wretch as this?

' *T. Y.* — He is indeed a villain. This Tching Yng had a son born to him about a month before: he put on him the dress of the Orphan, and carried him to the village of Tai Ping, to the house of the old Kong Lun.

' *T. P.* — Who is this Kong Lun?

' *T. Y.* — One of the great friends of Tchao Tun. The physician said to him, "Sir, take this little orphan, and go and apprise "The Red" that I have hidden the child for which he seeks. We will die together, I and my son; and you will take care of the little Tchao, until he is of age to avenge his house." Kong Lun answered him, "I am old: but, if you have the courage to sacrifice your son, bring him to me dressed in the robes of the Orphan of China, and go and accuse me to "The Red." Your son and I will die together, and you will carefully conceal the orphan, until he is old enough to avenge the wrongs of his family."

' *T. P.* — What! had this Tching Yng the courage to give up his own child?

' *T. Y.* — What difficulty was there in surrendering the life of a child? This Tching Yng then took his son, and carried him to Kong Lun. He then went to "The Red," and accused Kong Lun. After they had put this good old man to a thousand tortures, they at last discovered the child which they sought, and the barbarous "Red" cut it in pieces with his own hand. Kong Lun broke his neck on the steps of the palace. It is now twenty years since

all this happened, and the orphan of Tchao ought now to be twenty years old. He does not think of revenging his father and mother. Of what then does he think? He is well-made, above five feet in stature, is learned, and well skilled in the use of arms. His grandfather, what is become of him? All his house has been unmercifully massacred; his mother strangled; his father cut his throat; and even yet he is unavenged! It is wrong indeed that he should pass in the world for a man of spirit.

‘*T. P.* — My father, you have been talking to me for a long time. I seem to dream. I know not what you say.

‘*T. Y.* — Since, then, you are not yet aware of my meaning, I must speak plainly. This cruel man in red is Tounan Cou: Tchao Tun is your grandfather: Tchao So is your father: the princess is your mother: I am the old physician Tching Yng; and you are the Orphan of the House of Tchao.

‘*T. P.* — What! I am the Orphan of the House of Tchao! Ah! you kill me with grief and indignation! — (*He faints away.*)

‘*T. Y.* — My young lord, return to yourself.

‘*T. P.* — Alas! you kill me. — (*He sings**.) — If you had not told me this, how could I have learnt it? My father, place yourself in that chair, and suffer me to salute you. — (*He salutes him.*)

‘*T. Y.* — I have restored this day the house of Tchao! but, alas! I have destroyed my own. I have torn from it the only branch that remained. — (*He weeps.*)

‘*T. P.* — (*Sings.*) — Yes, I swear, I will be revenged of the traitor, Tounan Cou.

‘*T. Y.* — Make not so loud a noise, lest Tounan Cou should overhear you.

T. P. — I will die, or he shall perish, the traitor. — (*He sings.*) — My father, be not ill at ease. To-morrow, after I have seen the king and all the nobles, I will myself attack this assassin. — (*He sings, describing the manner in which he intends to attack and slay him.*)’

The result may be briefly described: but the whole of the interest of the preceding scene depended on its detail; and we have therefore been obliged to dwell longer on it than we could have otherwise wished.

One of the “explanatory actors” (as they may be called) of the Chinese stage now enters; and, commencing with a declaration of his identity, that he is really that person whom he professes to be, and holds such and such offices, he proceeds to relate to the audience all that they well knew before; adding

* The similarity of the Italian and the Chinese stage in this respect, — namely, the singing of the actors in agonies of grief, love, or revenge, — serves to exhibit a kindred deficiency of taste in the most different nations. The only solution of this seeming oddity appears to be that some standard, and some pure standard, for any kind of composition, is requisite to avoid the rudest barbarism.

that the king now considers the power of Toungan Cou as too great, and has given him (the speaker) an "Order" to deliver to "The Orphan" to seize and punish the traitor in secret. Toungan Cou, in consequence, is destined to a long and cruel death; and the play concludes by the Orphan receiving the title of Tchao Von. Han Koué is made generalissimo of the armies, after his death; a trifling objection to such appointments in the Chinese Table of Honours: Tching Yng receives a fine estate; and Kong Lun obtains a magnificent sepulchre.

Such a play, the present author observes, must create the most lively interest among a people whose ruling sentiment is filial piety; the basis of their political constitution, and even their substitute for religion.

' Who would believe (continues M. CORDIER DE LAUNAY) that this sublime drama of the composite kind is the original picture from which *Voltaire* has copied his Gengis-Khan, or Orphan of China? This man of wit was far from imagining that there existed a composite beauty. It is indeed evident, after his strange opinions on Homer and his own masters, *Corneille* and *Racine*, that *Voltaire* either did not know, or would not recognize, any standard of the beautiful but his own. When he had "unearth'd" this Chinese tragedy in *Du Halde*, he felt the impossibility of accommodating to our three unities such a multiplicity of subjects, times, places, and catastrophes. Nevertheless, he exerted all his strength on this object: but, if he had known that there were two kinds of the beautiful, he would have spared himself much useless labour: he would have perceived that the foundation as well as the rules of the composite beauty were absolutely the inverse of those which belong to the exact imitation; and that the amalgamation of these different species was wholly impossible. What was his expedient, in this insurmountable difficulty? He threw the original aside, took only its name, and, rapidly broaching a number of political maxims (thanks to his astonishing facility!) uttered by men in helmets and Grecian cuirasses, and by ladies in great hoops, he gave us what we possess, his pretended Orphan of China! This tragedy is as like Tartary or China as *Alzire* is like Peru, or Mahomet like Arabia. When we read the *Athalie* of *Racine*, we discover that, before he undertook such a subject, *Racine* was for ten years deeply imbued with the Bible, and with Jewish costume. *Voltaire* took no such trouble! An epic poet at eighteen; a tragedian till he was eighty-four; and every six months producing some master-piece; he has stamped the tinsel, instead of slowly fashioning the gold. The former is doubtless much sooner made, and shines astonishingly at first: but the misfortune is, that this brilliancy does not endure. Out of the prodigious number of volumes with which *Voltaire* has loaded our libraries, and given a gangrene to the age in which he lived, one little poem alone, rich in imagination, and thickly sown with agreeable descriptions, can support the rigorous examination of the connoisseur; and this burlesque, indecent, poem, travesties the heroine of our history, as an *Arctin*, or an *Apuleius*, would have done. The poet-laureat

of a superficial and corrupted capital, more favoured by nature in wit than in heart or understanding, *Voltaire* suffered himself to be inebriated with vulgar adulation; and he put his genius, (great as it was,) like his fortune, out to rack-rent. For the rest, I owe him the justice to say that he opened his eyes in this respect a few days before his death. All Paris, it is well known, was assembled at the doors of the theatre where he was crowned. The spectacle of this enthusiastic multitude, whistled together like a pack of hounds by intrigue,—a multitude, one half of which knew not how to read, and one hundredth part of which had not read his writings,—taught him that which no words could have conveyed. He felt at that moment the future *nothing* of his reputation. I was alone with him some days afterward: persons were constantly arriving to stun him with congratulations on this triumph: I said not a word: but he took my hand, and exclaimed, “Alas! I have lost my prey for its shadow.” I pretended not to understand him. What a striking example of philosophical and literary pride!

With this anecdote, on which we shall make no comments, we bid adieu to M. CORDIER DE LAUNAY; thanking him for considerable instruction, some amusement, and some gasconade.

ART. XV. Παισανου Ελλάδος Περιγησις. *Description de la Grèce de Pausanias, &c.; i. e.* The Description of Greece by Pausanias. A new Translation, and the Greek Text, collated with MSS. in the Royal Library. By M. CLAVIER, Member of the Institute, and Professor in the Royal College of France. Dedicated to the King. Vol. I. 8vo. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 1s. sewed.

WE have always considered Pausanias's description of Greece as a very interesting and instructive relic of antiquity; interesting not from any beauties or flow of language, but from the acknowledged fidelity of the rich picture which it presents; and instructive, as it elucidates the history of a people the most brilliant in their génius, the most enlightened in their political institutions, and the most energetic in support of their national independence. Important as these writings undoubtedly are, it is somewhat singular that they have been suffered to remain so long neglected; perhaps, in the whole compass of antient literature, scarcely any works having in a less degree exercised the labours of the learned, though few appear to have more required or merited their attention.

The Aldine edition of 1516, which contains only the Greek text, abounds in error. Printed from a faulty manuscript, with little attention and no critical sagacity, it wants numerous important passages, which were afterward, by the labours of Xylander and Sylburgius, discovered and supplied. The Frank-
fort

fort edition of 1583 was thus rendered more correct, and enriched by the judicious annotations of these celebrated scholars; and it was afterward revised by Kühnius, and reprinted at Leipsic in 1696. For the last edition, on which M. CLAVIER has formed his text, we are indebted to the labours of Facius, another of the German school: this was also printed at Leipsic in 1794—5: but it is little more, as the present author observes, than a bookseller's job, and does not much contribute to remove the obscurities of the original. Facius corrected his text from two manuscripts, one belonging to the library at Moscow, the other to that of Vienna; and a set of original notes was added, which may be considered rather as free from errors than as containing any thing of peculiar importance.

It thus appears that, including the present publication, not more than six editions of Pausanias have hitherto been given to the world; while commentators after commentators on the Grecian drama have risen up in ceaseless succession; and the numbers of the host, like the heads of the hydra, seem to have multiplied from the demise of their predecessors. It may be that the general obscurity of the style, and the *jejune* quaintness of the language, have contributed with the corrupt state of the text to render many readers insensible of this author's merits, and consequently have diverted the attention of the learned into a different channel: since it is absolutely necessary for those who would thoroughly understand his meaning, not only to have attained a profound knowledge of the Greek language in general, but also to be fully conversant in his peculiar idioms and unusual modes of expression. From this view, as well as from the general interest which we have ever felt in all that relates to so pleasing a subject, we hail with satisfaction the appearance of the present work; persuaded, as we are by former experience of the translator's abilities, that few men are better qualified for the task which he has undertaken.

M. CLAVIER, it will be recollected, published in the year 1809, "*L'Histoire des Premiers Temps de la Grèce*," a work of considerable learning and research, intended as a preparatory step to the study of the Greek historians in general, and particularly to throw some light on the obscurities of Pausanias. It seems to have been the author's endeavour, and we think not altogether an unsuccessful one, to distinguish the true from the fabulous part of the history of that early period; and to illustrate the origin of those traditionary legends so peculiar to the Grecian people, and so adapted to increase the stock whence they arose, viz. that innate spirit of credulity which forms one of the most prominent features in their character.

Our

Our readers may perhaps expect, in the general outline which we shall here attempt to give of the works of Pausanias, some notice of his life and character : but little if any thing has come down to us, which can be considered as historical fact. Philostratus, indeed, in his lives of the Sophists, gives an account of a native of Cæsarea of the same name, a favourite disciple of Herodes Atticus ; describing him as an eloquent declaimer, and a man of considerable knowlege, who took up his abode for some time at Athens, and finally retired to Rome, where at an advanced period of life he terminated his career : but, as nothing is here said respecting his researches in Greece, it would be difficult to identify this personage with the author before us. From the writings, however, which he has left us, may be collected his eminent qualifications both as an historian and a geographer ; and in these it is easy to perceive that unwearied curiosity which first prompted him to the commencement of his toil, and that spirit of research which conducted him to the successful conclusion of it. No effort of art, no secret of nature, escapes the vigilance of his observation : the stream of a river, or the history of a people, is alike traced up to its original source ; and the building of a temple, the sculpture of a statue, or the limits of a country, are described with the same degree of correctness.

Strabo, who flourished nearly two centuries before, had already given to the world a system of geography in long and minute detail : but he had been found to have too frequently sacrificed accuracy to elegance, and to have substituted conjecture for truth. The polite refinements of the Augustan age gave more encouragement to the songs of the poet, and the cultivation of the fine arts, than to the progressive advancement of geometrical science. At a later period, when the Romans, either from curiosity or political motives, had been induced to visit the interior of every part of Greece, and to extend their researches into the distant provinces of the empire, a more exact account of this highly-favoured country, and of its remarkable cities and districts, began to be daily demanded with increasing eagerness. After a long interval of calamity and war, in which we hear of little else than bloodshed and devastation, excesses and debaucheries, science began at length to revive. The learning of Adrian, his example, and the various endowments of his mind, gave shelter to the rising plant, and the peaceful reign of Antoninus nourished and preserved it. While Strabo then, fluent and harmonious, engages our attention by the purity of his style and the brilliancy of his colouring, Pausanias, in language trite and sententious, describing with precision all that he has observed with discernment, relieves the mind at intervals

vals by an agreeable variety, and a happy intermixture of local tradition, from the tediousness of geographical detail. To the tourist in Greece, the works of Pausanias are invaluable: he is the universal guide and companion to every one who, like himself, makes those delightful regions the object of inquiry; and the more diligently he is examined, the more suffrages he obtains. He is never at fault: because, his field lying within a compass comparatively small, he was enabled to visit and explore at leisure that which he had undertaken to record. The works of Strabo, on the other hand, comprising an account of every part of the known world, embrace a sphere much too extensive for correct personal investigation, and oblige him too frequently to rely on the authority of others for that which he alleges as undoubted and indisputable fact.

It is time, however, that we give some farther account of the present performance. M. CLAVIER, having consulted the previous editions of Xylander and Kühnius, has formed the basis of his text, as we have before observed, on the edition of Facius; and he has moreover collated four manuscripts, Nos. 1399, 1400, 1410, 1411., belonging to the king's library at Paris. The first of these, he informs us, was written at Milan in the year 1497, by one Peter Hypselas, and, though beautifully executed, appears to have been transcribed from a copy corrected by a person of no critical judgment, and therefore intitled to little confidence. The second contains only the Attica, and in that nothing of any great importance. The third, which appears to have been of the highest utility, was written in the year 1391. 'Though modern,' says M. CLAVIER, 'it is highly valuable, having been transcribed from a copy in which the old readings had been preserved, even where they were unintelligible. The traces of the *lacunæ* are even frequently indicated. It has been of the utmost utility to me, and has often enabled me to discover the true reading.' The fourth manuscript, No. 1411., is nearly of the same age with the foregoing, and differs from it but little except in being somewhat less correct. The editor has likewise consulted the Latin versions of Amaseus and Læschærus: the first, which Sylburgius subjoined to the Greek text of the Frankfort edition, was printed at Rome in the year 1547: the latter, though inferior in point of latinity, is said to be more faithful and correct. The Italian translation by Bouaccioli, as well as the English by Taylor, has also been occasionally consulted.

Such are the auxiliaries of which M. CLAVIER has made use in the present work: but still he confesses that many passages remain, which cannot be restored by the aid of such imperfect manuscripts as those which we have above described.

To remedy these deficiencies, he has frequently given emendations of his own, which he has noted at the bottom of the page by the mark, *Ισ. for *Ισως, perhaps. These conjectural readings, we think, are much too frequent; and it appears to us that the writer has not escaped the erroneous inclination, so prevalent among his countrymen, of altering and interfering with the text where the sense was previously complete. To support this opinion, we quote some examples.

Page 441. Λέγεται δὲ παρεστηκέναι τῇ Ἡρᾷ τέχνη Ναυκύδους ἄγαλμα Ἡβῆς. The sense here is complete; a statue of Hebe, the workmanship of Naucydes, is said to have stood near the Juno. M. CLAVIER, however, is not satisfied with this, and conceives the true reading to be, οὐδὲν ἦσσαν ὡς λέγεται. Παρεστηκε δὲ τῇ, &c.

Page 458. for ἐν τῷ τοιούτῳ, we find ἐν τοσούτῳ.

Page 462. Καὶ παριούσιν εἰς τὸ δίκημα, ἐνταῦθα τὸν Ἀδωνιν αἱ γυναῖκες Ἀργείων ὀδύρονται. We conceive that this required no emendation:—yet the editor proposes, ἐστὶν δίκημα ἔνθα τὸν Ἀδωνιν, &c.

Pages 526—9., where the author is speaking of the different extent of Phocis under the reign of Phocus, the son of Ornytion, and under that of the son of Æacus of the same name, the reading of Facius runs thus: Ἐπὶ μὲν δὲ φώκου τούτου περὶ Τιθορέαν τε καὶ Παρνασσὸν ἔκαλεῖτο ἡ φωνίς· ἐπὶ δὲ τοῦ Αἰακοῦ καὶ πᾶσιν ἐξενίκησεν, ὡς οἱ Μινύαι τέ εἰσιν Ὀρχομενίοις ὄμοροι. The conjectural emendation of the editor is: Ἐπὶ δὲ τοῦ φώκου τοῦ Ἀιακοῦ παισὶν ἐξενίκησεν, ὥς Μινύαις τέ εἰσιν. Now we own that we see no reason for the insertion here of τοῦ φώκου; and moreover, in the former part of the sentence, we find ἐπὶ with the genitive, whereas in the emendation of the editor it is joined to the dative παισὶν. We would suggest the following: ἐπὶ δὲ τοῦ Ἀιακοῦ παίδων ἐξενίκησεν, ὥς Μινύαις εἶναι Ὀρχομενίοις ὄμοροι.

¶ An alteration at page 541., we think, is somewhat more just. The author is speaking of the death of Saron, king of Træzene, and the usual reading is, (θηρέειν γὰρ δὴ μάλιστα ἤρητο) ελαφὸν διώκοντα εἰς θάλασσαν, ὡς οὗ κατελάμβανε, συνεσπείειν φευγούσῃ. This we find altered into, Σάρωνα δὲ (θηρέων γὰρ δὴ μάλιστα ἤδετο) κατέλαβεν, ἔλαφον διώκοντα, εἰς θάλασσαν συνεσπείειν φευγούσῃ.

These observations will suffice, for the present, to give our readers some insight into the merits of this publication; of which only the first volume, containing the Attica and the Corinthia, has yet made its appearance. At a future opportunity, we shall be glad to pursue our examination of the remaining parts of it. When completed, it will consist of six volumes 8vo., one of which is to be devoted to tables and references.

The

The translator proposes also to publish hereafter a more extensive collection of notes, should they be required by the literary world; and he thinks, with some justice, that the many tours, which our countrymen have of late years made in Greece, will be in a great degree serviceable to this portion of his labours. We trust that he will not fail in the performance of this promise; and we would suggest the addition of a copious index, which so much enhances in our estimation the value of the edition of Sylburgius.

As for the translation itself, it will be but justice to say that it is very superior to any that we have hitherto had occasion to peruse. The style is not only clear, easy, and fluent, but it is also as literal and as faithful to the original as the different genius of the languages could allow. This is indeed the part of the work which, as far as we judge of it from its present state, seems most intitled to our approbation; and, from the specimen before us, we are disposed to appreciate the extent of M. CLAVIER's learning, and his abilities as a general scholar, more highly than his critical acumen, or the solidity of his judgment. On the whole, however, we are well satisfied with the performance, from the commencement of which we augur favourably of the conclusion; and we feel considerable pleasure in the idea that a task of such general utility and importance, as the illustration of Pausanias, has devolved to the lot of so enlightened a scholar.

ART. XVI. *Mehaled et Sedli*; &c.; i. e. *Mehaled and Sedli*, the History of a Druse Family. By the Baron DE DALBERG, Brother of his R. H. the Grand Duke of Frankfort. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1812.

ORIGINALLY written in German by Baron DALBERG, this novel has been translated into French, probably under the author's inspection. It has the merit not merely of relating an interesting love-story, but of describing the real and living manners of the Druses, with poetic eloquence and learned fidelity.

The Druses are little known. Since the eleventh century they have inhabited the highlands encircling Mount Lebanon, and have overspread the neighbourhood of Said, Balbek, Jebel, Tripoli, Acca, the banks of the Jordan, and have even pitched their tents in Egypt. Faithful to the simple manners which they inherit from their forefathers, they avoid, notwithstanding their hospitality, all familiarity with strangers, especially with those of another faith, as are the Turks; from whom, while they pay to them a tribute, they studiously conceal their reli-

gious opinions. They came originally from Khorasan, a province of Persia, under the guidance of one Hakem, a prophet or enthusiast, who taught them doctrines similar to those of Zoroaster, which he is thought to have imbibed, but with the addition that the good God was become incarnate in him for the purpose of reviving the true religion among men. He affected great veneration for the moon, was followed by many Persians and Jews, and at length excited the jealousy of Calif Modhi of the Abbassid dynasty, who sent troops against his sectaries, and compelled an extensive emigration.

Two hundred and forty-six years after the death of Hakem, (that is, in the year of the Hegira 408, or of the Christians 1017,) a man once called Ben Ismael came out of Persia into Egypt, entered into the Calif's service, began to preach the doctrines of Hakem, and boasted that he was a second incarnation of the same divine spirit. This person was assassinated at Cairo by a Turk; after which the populace pillaged and destroyed his house.

A third Persian, named Hamsa, came among the Druses to reclaim them to the faith of their Persian brethren. This missionary was protected by the Calif more efficaciously, and his adherents obtained a legal settlement on Mount Lebanon in 1020, under conditions of allegiance and tribute.

Pagés, in his travels round the world, says that many sheiks, or chiefs, of the Druses are Christians, but that they hold an Unitarian faith, like the Jews and Mohammedans. Apparently, their sect is a mixture of antient oriental religions, and their sacred books might throw some light on the obscurer ages of ecclesiastical antiquity. *Pagés* adds that, under the name of the *Taura*, they read in their temples the law of Moses.

These and many other particulars, corroborated in the German original by learned citations, are stated in the instructive and extensive preface or introduction. The novel itself follows.

Mehaled is a fugitive, seeking shelter and hospitality at the house of a middle aged sheik of the Druses, who has a beautiful daughter named Sedli. Soon after the young people have had an opportunity of falling in love with each other, it is discovered that Mehaled, in a skirmish with some Arabs who came to levy contributions in his country, had slain a near relation of his host and benefactor. The duty of vengeance becomes a point of honour; and, although Mehaled is dismissed without injury, he is given to understand that he must expect an unquenchable enmity. The Druse and his family are dispersed; Mehaled rises into military consequence; and he becomes in his turn the preserver and benefactor of Sedli's father. Meanwhile,

Sedli is made a convert to the Christian religion, and attaches her lover to this form of faith : they are united by a Christian priest : but the health of Sedli is impaired by her sufferings, and the story terminates with her funeral.

We translate a part of the concluding chapter :

‘ The ceremony took place in the morning. Mehaled, Sedli, and Haleb, received baptism in a neighbouring church, connected with the monastery. They agreed for some time to dissemble, in the hope that a ray of celestial light would ere long indicate to their parents the path of salvation. However, the new converts frequented the Christian church, which did not surprize the sheik, because, according to the religion of the Druses, it is not forbidden them to enter the temples of the Christians.

‘ Some time afterward, Mehaled was recalled by the Czar on pressing affairs, and he set off for Teflis, but did not separate from Sedli without great uneasiness. Her health had for some time been declining ; and, though she endeavoured to hide from Mehaled the decay of her strength, it was becoming but too apparent. He communicated his alarm to Basil ; and this pious physician employed all the resources of his art in her behalf : but the seeds of destruction had taken root ; Sedli was daily sinking ; and Mehaled left her with a bleeding heart.

‘ The Czar received him with benevolence, and learnt with satisfaction that his family had chosen to adopt the Christian faith. Mehaled, on his part, rendered all the service in his power to his benefactor, devoting to him his time and labour ; for he held it as a maxim that the honest man should sacrifice his private interest to that of the state. However, the desire which he felt to be again with Sedli before her departure was not to be disappointed.

‘ A monk of the convent came to preach every holiday in the chapel near the dwelling of the Druses. It was the turn of Basil. The sheik, having been informed of his arrival, appeared there with all his family except Sedli ; who, on account of her infirmity, could not now leave the house. The hermit intentionally took his text in the history of the conversion of Cornelius, the Roman centurion, and began his sermon by these words, quoted from the tenth chapter of the Acts of the Apostles : “ He saw in a vision evidently about the ninth hour of the day an angel of God coming in to him, and saying unto him, Cornelius. And when he looked on him, he was afraid, and said, What is it, Lord ? And he said unto him, Thy prayers and thine alms are come up for a memorial before God. And now send men to Joppa, and call for one Simon whose surname is Peter.” The orator continued to read this simple and affecting narration, and to intermingle his impressive comments. He passed on to the conversion of the great apostle of the Gentiles, and described him, when penetrated with his first sublime vocation, entering into the house of Ananias ; who, putting his hands on him, said, “ The Lord Jesus hath sent me that thou mightest receive thy sight, and be filled with the holy ghost.”

‘ The good priest delivered these words with so much energy, and so heartfelt an emotion, that the Druses were moved by it to the
bottom

bottom of their hearts ; and the desire came upon them to receive the light of faith, and to be admitted into the Christian communion. The discourse terminated with an exhortation never to delay a good deed, and with enumerating the advantages which Christianity bestows on each individually, and on the human race collectively. When it was over, the Druses thronged about the holy man, and desired baptism : how great was their surprize to learn that Sedli, Mehaled, and Haleb, had already embraced the faith !

‘ Meanwhile, the health of Sedli was more and more impaired ; and she seemed to wither like the delicate autumnal flower, which shrivels when the winter draws nigh. She wrote thus to Mehaled : “ If I have concealed from thee my state of health, believe me that it has been in order not to afflict thee. My strength leaves me, and I feel the hour of dissolution approaching. Must I go without seeing thee once again ? We must part : but death is only the passport to a purer climate ; and our child will bear thee company until we meet again. My spirit shall hover over you both, and pray with you and for you. Come, Mehaled, and bid me a last farewell.”

‘ Mehaled flew to his home ; where the sadness of every countenance told him that little hope remained. With anguish of heart, he inquired of Basil whether remedies more powerful might yet avail : but the monk answered, looking up to heaven, that he had only to resign himself to the will of God.

‘ Mehaled approached the bed of Sedli ; who, unable from extreme weakness to rise, could only offer him her hand with a faint smile. Without speaking a word, Mehaled took it, pressed it to his lips, and bathed it with tears.

‘ Who can paint all that passed during her last moments ? She died like a Christian ; and from her very birth her life had been pure as that of an angel. Death did not snatch her violently away, but gently loosed the silken cords which attached her to life ; and she comforted those about her, as if her end was to be that of another. A lighted taper was given to each of the assistants, and they kneeled in concert to recite a prayer, when the angel of Sedli had wafted her soul into the mansions of everlasting bliss. Her mortal remains lost scarcely any of their native beauty.

‘ The state of Mehaled cannot be well expressed. Sara, and the old sheik, and all the family, and all who had been dear to Sedli, came round him, and wept for him and with him. Basil took charge of the obsequies ; which were plain, and free from pomp, as she had commanded. Her relations and the poor followed ; women carried the bier ; and the grave was dug in the cemetery of the neighbouring convent, under the shade of cypress trees. The family, clad in mourning, surrounded the sepulchre, while the service of the church was performed ; after which, female voices sang in chorus this elegy :

“ Veil your heads with the crape of mourning, and utter aloud the cry of grief, and repeat abroad, Woe, woe, woe ! A young and fair flower has fallen in the garden of existence ; too soon it has fallen. The graces of youth adorned her ; the lily and the rose had lent their colouring to her complexion. The smile of Sedli was welcome

as the first glance of the unrisen sun : her shape was slender as the cedar ; and in her step she was light as the antelope. Still fairer was her soul ; her bounty dried the tears of want ; her voice charmed hostility to peace. Woe, woe, woe ; she has fallen, a sacrifice to maternal love.”

This pleasing, tender, and uncommon novel is elegantly written, contains much geographical instruction, and may be very useful to those missionaries who are disposing themselves to visit the Syrian churches. It breathes every where a pure morality and a religious tendency, and well deserves to occupy the pen of a translator. Many notes are affixed, explanatory of the allusions to oriental opinions and usages ; which display appropriate erudition, and bring into notice many works of the Germans that are little known even to our orientalists.

ART. XVII. *Manuel du Libraire, &c. ; i. e.* The Manual of the Book-seller and of the Book-fancier, &c. &c. By JAMES CHARLES BRUNET, jun. 2d Edition, augmented by more than 4000 Articles, and a great number of Notes. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe.

IT is well known that *Debure*, a Parisian bookseller, published in seven octavo volumes, between 1763 and 1768, his *Bibliographie Instructive*, which contains an extensive catalogue of rare and singular books ; noticing the usual price of each, and discriminating between *various* editions. It was found very useful to those who were engaged in the book-trade, and to authors, librarians, and collectors : but errors were progressively detected, and numerous omissions were lamented. M. BRUNET, the compiler of the volumes before us, therefore undertook the recomposition of *Debure's* work. A more compendious form of record was adopted, emendations were perpetually inserted, additional articles and anecdotes were collected, and a new and fuller *Bookseller's Manual* was produced in 1810 ; which has proved a most convenient and comprehensive repertory of the exact titles, successive editions, and relative values of the leading objects of literary cupidity and speculation in France. These were chiefly the flowers of Latin, Italian, and French erudition :—Greek, German, and English productions being at that time less sought. The first edition of M. BRUNET's Manual, however, became in its turn exhausted ; and he now offers to the public a second, enriched with about four thousand additional articles, and adapted for more easy consultation by extensive indexes. The augmentations are principally derived from the English bibliographers, Clarke, Harwood, Dibdin, and others ; a circumstance which is symptomatic of a growing attention to our language on the Continent. We think that this

is a far better book than *Peignot's Repertoire Bibliographique*, which was noticed at p. 526. of our seventy-third volume; and indeed a book which well deserves translation, or rather imitation, in our own tongue.

The compiler's plan is not to give an universal but a select catalogue: he omits systematically those trivial, ephemeral, and insignificant layers of stretched leaves, which, under the name of books, are sold by weight or tale: he aspires to confer by his notice a sort of literary nobility; and only the titles which he enumerates are to be titles recognized in the reading world. These are recorded in the alphabetic order of the authors' names: or, when anonymous books occur, in the alphabetic order of the titular substantive. Praise is given to *Barbier's Dictionary of Anonymous and Pseudonymous Works*;^{*} and great use has been made of it in referring to specific authors the publications which were originally nameless. Under the head *Bible*, are enumerated all editions of the Jewish Scriptures; and under the head *Testament*, all editions of the Christian Scriptures. Those romances of chivalry, of which the writers are unknown, are inserted under the heads *Arthur*, *Gyron*, *Launcelot*, and *Trystan*. Great care is taken to note the number of pages or sheets; and the number of cuts, engravings, or maps, which ought to accompany a work. Complete copies of good editions are not ascertained without industrious collation.

Among the antient bibliographers to whom this author is indebted, may especially be distinguished *Audiffred's Catalogus Romanarum Edit. Seculi XV.*, and *Panzer's Annales Typographiques*. From the makers of local catalogues, tributary information has frequently been derived; and a list of these sources of intelligence is prefixed, which occupies three pages. This work is circumstanced like Walton's *Polyglott*: during the progress of its parturition, a national revolution was effected; and in the first and second volumes the writer speaks of the *imperial* library, but in the third and fourth of the *royal* library, at Paris.

Volumes I., II., and III. are filled with the alphabetic catalogue, of which an idea may be formed by our reprinting in their polyglottic variety a few specimens, though we cannot follow the arrangement in columns. We will take the letter J, here properly separated from I, as far as J A C.

‘JAAFAR (Abi) *Philosophus auto-didactus, sive epistola Abi Jaafar Ebn Topbail de Hai Ebn Tokdban, in qua ostenditur quomodo ex inferiorum contemplatione ad superiorum notitiam ratio humana adscendere possit; ex arab. in linguam lat. versa, ab Edw. Pocockio, filio. Oxonii, e Th. Sheld. 1671, in-4. [2038]*

* See Rev. Vol. lxi. N. S. p. 462.

- * Il y a des exemplaires de la même édition dont le titre porte editio secunda, priori emendatio, avec la date 1700, mais qui, loin d'avoir quelque chose de plus que les premiers, ont au contraire de moins l'épître dédicatoire. Vendu 22 fr. Villoison.
- * JABLONSKII (Pauli-Ernesti) *Pantheon Ægyptiorum, sive de diis eorum comment.* Francofurti, 1750-52, 3 part. in-8. [14249]
- * Ouvrage savant : 15 à 18 fr. ; vendu 27 fr. rel. en 1 vol. m. cit. F. D.
- * — *De Memnone Græcorum et Ægyptiorum, bujusque celeberrima in Thebaïde statua, dissertatio.* Francofurti, 1753, in-4. fig. 6 à 8 fr. [14250]
- * — *Opuscula, quibus lingua et antiquitas Ægyptiorum, difficilia librorum sacrorum loca, etc. illustrantur, edidit et animadvers. adjecit. Jona-Guil. Te Water.* Lugd. Bat. 1804-1813, 4 vol. in-8. 70 fr. [13916]
- * JABLONSKY (Ch.-Gust.) et J.-Fr.-G. HERBST. *Natursystem aller etc. ; c'est-à-dire, système de la nature de tous les insectes connus, indigènes et exotiques (en allemand).* Berlin, 1782-1806, 21 vol. in-8. fig. color. [3691]
- * L'ouvrage est divisé en 2 parties : la première contient les scarabées, 10 vol. ; la seconde renferme les papillons, 11 vol. Les 21 vol. reviennent à près de 800 fr.
- * JACINTHES (des), *de leur anatomie, reproduction et culture (par de Saint-Simon).* Amsterdam, 1768, in-4 fig. 5 à 6 fr. — Gr. Pap. de Holl. 10 à 12 fr. [3193]
- * JACKSON'S (J.) *Journey from India towards England in the year 1797, by a route commonly called overland, through countries not much frequented, etc.* London, 1799, in-8. 7 à 10 fr. [11342]
- * JACKSON'S (James Grey) *Account of the empire of Morocco, and the district of Suse, compiled from various observations made during a long residence in, and various journeys through these countries.* London, Nichols, 1809, in-4 fig. 50 fr. [13939]
- * JACOB'S (Will.) *Travels in the south of Spain, in letters written A. D. 1809 and 1810.* London, Johnson, 1811, in-4. fig. 75 fr. [11169]
- * Les gravures de cet ouvrage sont très-médiocres.
- * JACOBÆI (Oligeri) *de Ranis observationes ; accessit Casp. Bartholini de nervorum usu in motu musculorum epistola, etc.* Parisiis 1682, in-8. fig. 3 à 4 fr. [3626]
- * L'édition de 1676 est moins complète que celle-ci.
- * — *Museum regium, seu catalogus rerum tam naturalium, quam artificialium, quæ in basilica bibliotheca Christiani V. Hafniæ asservantur, descriptus ab Oligero Jacobæo.* Hafniæ, 1696, in-fol. fig. 10 à 15 fr. [4001]
- * On doit trouver dans ce vol. un auctarium, impr. en 1699, qui contient 97 pag. de texte et les pl. 38-41 : vendu 23 fr. m. r. Gouttard.
- * La nouvelle édition : Nunc vero magna ex parte auctior, uberioribusq. commentariis præsertim autem quoad antiquitates historiamq. numismatum Danicorum illustratus, accurante Johanne Lauerentzen. *Havniæ* (1710), in-fol. avec 55 pl. est un peu plus chère.

chère. Elle est difficile à collationner, parce que les pages n'en sont pas chiffrées, et que les planches, au lieu d'être réunies à la fin du volume sous une seule série de numéros, comme dans la première édition, sont placées à la fin de chacune des sections à laquelle elles ont rapport. La 1^{re} partie, en 7 sect. contient le nombre de pl. suivant, savoir : la 1^{re} sect. 8 pl. ; la 2^e et la 3^e, chacune 3 pl. ; la 4^e, 5^e, 6^e, et 7^e, une pl. chacune. La 2^e partie est partagée en 5 sect. avec 28 pl. dans la 1^{re} sect. 2 dans la seconde, 6 dans la 3^e et 1 dans la 4^e ; tout cela non compris le portrait placé au frontispice. La totalité du texte finit par le feuillet E 14, au verso duquel sont les errata. Au surplus, cette édition, dont il existe des exemplaires précieux en papier de Hollande, cette édition, disons-nous, quoique plus complète que la précédente, n'en dispense pas entièrement, parce qu'on a retranché de la dernière différentes choses qui se trouvent dans la première.

° JACOBATIUS (Dom.) *Voy.* LABBE.

° JACOBI épisc. *Nisibiensis sermones, armenice et lat.* (a N. Antonello). Romæ, typ. congregat. de propag. fide, 1756, in-fol. Vendu 30 fr. Anquetil. [711]

° JACOBI Salomonis (Negri) *Damasceni Arabum philosophia popularis, sive sylloge nova proverbiorum ab eo dicata, arab. et lat. interprete Frid. Rostgaard, edente Jo.-Chr. Kallio.* Hafniæ, 1764, in-8. [10168]

° Vendu 9 fr. Villoison.

° JACOBI apost. *liturgia.* V. SAINCTES.

° JACOBUS de Cessolis. *Voy.* CESSOL.

° JACOBUS de Clusa. *Voy.* CLUSA.

° JACOBS (Fred.) *Animadversiones in Euripidis tragædias ; acced. emendationes in Stobæum. Epistola critica ad Nic. Schow.* Gothæ, 1790, in-8. 9 fr. [8796]

° — *Cura secunda in Euripidis tragædias, sive exercitationes critica in scriptores veteres.* Lips. 1795, in-8. — *Exercitationum criticarum tomus secundus.* Lips. 1797. in-8. 9 fr. [10081]

° — *Voy.* ANTHOLOGIA.

° JACOPONE da Todi, *laude fatte, e composte da piu persone spirituali ad onore dello onnipotente i Dio, e della Vergine Maria, etc. raccolte, ed insieme ridotte da Jacopo di Maestro Luigi de Mersi.* Firenze, Bonacorsi, 1485, in-4. [8390]

° Première édition : vend. 25 fr. Pinelli.

° — *Incominciano i cantichi, ovvero laude del B.-F. Jacopone de Benedetto da Todi,* Firenze, Francesco Bonacorsi, 1490. in-4.

° Vendu en m. r. 19 fr. Gaignat ; 30 fr. la Vallière.

° — *Voy.* JUSTINIANI.

° — *I cantici, ristampati con l'aggiunta di alcuni discorsi, e la vita sua (da Giambat. Modio).* Roma, Salviani, 1558, in-4.

° Belle édition : vend. 6 fr. 50 c. Floncel.

° — *Poesie spirituali accresciute e distinte in VII libri, con le annotazione di F. Fran. Tresatti.* Venetia, 1617, in-4.

° Cette édition est celle qu'indique l'Académie de la Crusca : 10 à 15 fr.

° JACQUES (Frère), *Bastard de Bourbon.* *Voy.* BOURBON.

° JACQUIN

- JACQUIN (Nic.-Jos.). *Icones plantarum rariorum*. Vindobonæ, 1781-95, 3 vol. in-fol. fig. color. 500. à 600 fr. [3029]
- *Ouvrage précieux et bien exécuté, dont les exemplaires sont rares en France. T. I, 20 pag. et 200 pl.—T. II, 22 pag. et pl. 201—454.—T. III, 24 pag. et pl. 455. à 648.*
- *Il paroît depuis peu 4 fascicules ou 40 pl. d'un recueil du même genre que celui-ci, et qui a pour titre : Eclogæ plantarum rariorum aut minus cognitarum quas ad vivum descripsit et iconibus coloratis illustravit Jos. Fr. de Jacquin. Vienne, gr. in-fol.*
- — *Oxalis monographia, iconibus illustrata*. Viennæ, 1794, gr. in-4. cum 81. fig. color. [3207]
- *Vendu 121 fr. Ventenat, sans avoir toujours cette valeur.*
- — *Observationum botanicar. partes IV*. Vindobonæ, 1764-71, 4 part. en 1 vol. in-fol. cum 100 tab. 24 à 36 fr. [3086]
- — *Enumeratio stirpium plerarum quæque sponte crescunt in agro Vindobonensi, montibusque confinibus*. Vindobonæ, 1762, in-8. fig. 6 à 7 fr. [3306]
- — *Floræ Austriacæ, sive plantarum selectar. in Austria archiducatu sponte crescentium icones ad vivum color*. Viennæ-Austr. 1773-78, 5 vol. gr. in-fol. [3307]
- *Cet ouvrage contient 500 pl. color. avec beaucoup de soin. Vendu 600 fr. m. r. Saint-Céran, en 1780; 401 fr. (rel. en 3 vol.) Belin; 750 fr. l'Héritier.*
- — *Hortus botanicus Vindobonensis, seu plantarum rariorum, quæ in horto botanico Vindobonensi coluntur, icones et descriptiones*. Vindobonæ, 1770-76, 3 vol. gr. in-fol. fig. [3446]
- *Ouvrage contenant 300 pl. color. dont l'auteur n'a fait tirer que 162 exempl. tous numérotés. Vendu 400 fr. br. l'Héritier.*
- *Ces deux ouvrages se trouvent quelquefois réunis. Vend. les 8 vol. 1309 fr. m. r. de Limare; 1000 fr. rel. en 4 vol. Belin; 1571 fr. même exempl. Ventenat.*
- *On a fait depuis peu une édit. de l'Hortus Vindobonensis, distribuée en 24 livraisons : elle coûte 312 fr.*
- — *Plantarum rariorum horti Ces. Schænbrunnensis descriptiones et icones*. Viennæ, 1797-1804, 4 vol. gr. in-fol. fig. color. [3447]
- *Cet ouvrage, qui ne le cède point en beauté aux autres productions du même auteur, est orné de 500 pl. et a coûté 1100 fr. Vendu 600 fr. Tournaisen.*
- — *Selectarum Stirpium American. historia*. Vindobon. 1763, 2 tom. 1 vol. in-fol. cum 183. tab. 30. à 40 fr. [3414]
- *Il y a des exempl. de ce volume en pap. de Hollande, avec pl. coloriées; mais ils ne se trouvent que très-difficilement.*
- — *Selectarum Stirpium Americanarum historia, in qua ad Linnean. systema determinatæ, descriptæque sistuntur plantæ illæ, quas in insulis Martinica, Jamaïca, S.-Domingo, etc. observavit rariores; adjectis iconibus ab auctoris archetypo pictis*. (Viennæ-Austr. circa ann. 1780), in-fol. max.
- *Ouvrage de la plus grande rareté, dont on assure qu'il n'a été tiré que 12 exempl. Il est composé de 137 pag. de texte, et de 264 fig. peintes et non gravées. Voy. Biblioth. Firmiana, t. 3. 2^e part. page 61.;*

- Esprit des Journ. Janvier 1782, et surtout Catal. de M. Banks
t. 3. p. 183.
- *Miscellanea austriaca ad botanicam, chemiam, et historiam naturalem spectantia*. Vindob. 1778–81, 2 vol. pet. in-4. cum 21 et 23 fig. color. [3948]
- Vendu 31 fr. l'Héritier; 40 fr. Ventenat.
- *Collectanea austriaca ad botanicam, chemiam, et historiam naturalem spectantia*. Vindob. 1786–96, 5 vol. gr. in-4. fig. color. [3949]
- Le 1^{er} vol. a 22 pl.; — le 2^e, 18 pl.; — le 3^e, 23 pl.; — le 4^e, 27 pl.; — et le 5^e, ou supplément, 16 pl. Vendu en 4 vol. 89 fr. l'Héritier; en 5 vol. 101. fr. Ventenat.
- *Stapeliarum in hortis Vindobonensibus cultarum descriptiones, figuris coloratis illustrate*. Vindob. 1806–7. gr. in-fol. fig. col. [3217]
- *Fragmenta Botanica*. Vindob. Bek. 1800–9, gr. in-fol. fig. col. [3030]
- Tous ces ouvrages de Jacquin sont recherchés, et peu communs en France.

The fourth and most elaborate of these volumes consists of a methodical catalogue, in which all the books noticed in the foregoing three volumes are classed according to the topics to which they relate, and in the order of their dates. Much skill is displayed in the distribution, of which we will endeavour to communicate some idea.

The first principal division is Theology, which is subdivided into ten subordinate classes, intituled, 1. Sacred Books: 2. Sacred Philology: 3. Liturgies: 4. Councils: 5. Holy Fathers: 6. Theologians: 7. Singular Opinions: 8. Religion of the Jews and Gentiles: 9. Religion of the Chinese, Hindoos, and Mahometans: 10. Deists, Infidels, and Atheists. Each of these subdivisions has again its under-classes, when the number of books necessary to be indicated is considerable. It may excite notice that, in the tenth section, the author ascribes to Baron Holbach not only the *Système de la Nature*, but the *Histoire Critique de Jésus Christ*, lately (we believe) translated into our language under the title of *Ecce Homo*. He records French translations of Collins and of Hobbes, but does not indicate the English originals: nor has he, among the editions of Spinoza, specified the best, which appeared at Jena in 1802. In short, this chapter is very defective; purposely, perhaps; and to the honour of the author's piety and Christianity.

The second principal division is Jurisprudence, which is again branched into 1. Introductions to the Study of Law and General Tractates: 2. Right of Nature and Law of Nations: 3. Civil and Criminal Law, which again has six subdivisions: 4. Ecclesiastical Law.

A third division is allotted to Science, which branches into Introductory and Encyclopedic Works: 2. Philosophy: 3. Logic

and

and Metaphysics : 4. Morality : 5. Economy : 6. Polity : 7. Statistics : 8. Physics : 9. Chemistry : 10. Natural History : 11. Medicine : 12. Mathematics : 13. Occult Sciences, with Fine Arts, Gymnastic Exercises, &c.

A fourth division has the epigraph *Belles Lettres*, or Fine Literature. This is subdivided into 1. Grammar : 2. Rhetoric : 3. Orators : 4. Theory of Poetry : 5. Poets : 6. Drama : 7. Mythology : 8. Romance : 9. Jests : 10. Philology : 11. Polygraphers : 12. Dialogues : 13. Letters.

In a fifth division, we find History, subdivided into Geography, Voyages and Travels, Chronology, Universal History, History of Religions and Superstitions, Antient History, Middle History, and Modern History, which is subdivided into European, Asiatic, African, and American ; and again subdivided according to the number of independent sovereignties included in each segment of the world. Other heads are allotted to Antiquities, to the History of Noble and Military Orders, to Literary History, Bibliography, and Biography. The head Antiquities is especially comprehensive, and is subdivided into Monuments of Architecture, Sculpture, Painting, Engraved Gems, Medals, Vases, and Inscriptions on Marbles. The concluding section enumerates Historical Extracts.

This philosophical arrangement of the preceding treasury of titles is well adapted to save trouble to the practical librarian, and to prepare a general coincidence of allotment for such books as might with rival plausibility be thrown under various subdivisions. Every article is numbered alike in the alphabetic and in the methodic arrangement: the former is the critical catalogue, and includes whatever occurs of anecdotic remark : but the latter is the historical catalogue, and exhibits all the books of each subdivision in the chronological order of their publication.

An important preparation for the literary history of Europe, and of the world, is made by these instructive collections. It would perhaps be desirable to digest the acts of publication into annals ; and to make complete lists of all the books printed in Europe during the first, the second, and the third year, of the fifteenth or the sixteenth century. The progress of illumination is not indeed exactly coëval with the number of works printed. The object of some books is to cover with clouds the human mind, and to obscure the dawn of reason : but the mass of writers are friends to knowlege and to truth, and will at last consign to an unwelcome and penal celebrity the names of those who have favoured mysticism and scattered error.

We conclude by expressing our deliberate gratitude to the useful and laborious compiler of this still incomplete but very comprehensive Manual of Bibliography; and by advising British writers to record and bring out his omissions as to our native literature, in order that our domestic contributions to public instruction may no where be lost to fame or to utility. He will be ranked, like his countryman *Delandine*, (see our lxxiiiid vol. p.463.) among those bibliographers who have carried the spirit of philosophy into technical toil; and who, by the magnetism of intellect, have compelled the dust of libraries to assume a regular and instructive arrangement.

ART. XVIII. *Histoire des Croisades, &c.; i. e.* The History of the Crusades, Part II. containing the second and third Crusade. With a Chart of the Christian States in Asia, and a Plan of Ptolemais. By M. MICHAUD. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 587. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s.

OF the madness of men, can a stronger instance be produced than what has been called by some the Holy War, and by others the Croisade or Crusade, in which the kingdoms of the West associated for the purpose of invading Asia, with the view of delivering from the hands of infidels the scene of our Lord's preaching, sufferings, and death? The unanimity and enthusiasm, with which the Christian nations of Europe engaged in this enterprise, have been amply displayed by M. MICHAUD in the first volume of his work, of which we gave an account in Vol. lxxi. N. S. p. 493. All the details of this singular war, down to the taking of Jerusalem by Godfrey of Bouillon, were included in the first volume; and the author, having resolved on presenting the public with a full display of all the exploits of the crusaders, purposes, in addition to the volume before us, to supply a third and a fourth; the former of which is to include, 1. the Crusade of Henry VI. Emperor of Germany: 2. the Taking of Constantinople by the Crusaders, and the Foundation of the Empire of the Latins: 3. the Crusade of the Emperor Frederic II. In the fourth volume will be related, 1. the Two Crusades directed by St. Louis: 2. the Events which accomplished the Ruin of the Christians in Asia, and led to their being for ever driven from Palestine: 3. the Attempts made by the Popes, and by several Sovereigns of Europe, to revive the Spirit of crusading among the Nations of the West.

After having thus exhausted his historic matter, M. MICHAUD intends to finish his recital by collecting the several opinions which have been offered respecting the Crusades, from the 13th to the present century; suggesting also some considerations on

the evils and the benefits which have resulted from these remote wars. Here we might have supposed that his labours would have terminated : but this is not the case. To qualify himself for his task, he has amassed such a quantity of materials as will furnish a Bibliography of the Crusades ; he therefore states it as his intention to present the public with a fifth volume by way of supplement or appendix, in which will be given a short notice of all the works that served him as a guide, and have furnished the matter from which his narrative is compiled. Such is the plan which he has sketched ; and, as he tells us that his manuscript is nearly finished, we hope that the changes which have occurred in France, since the beginning of the present year, have not obstructed the accomplishment of his literary labours.

The volume before us contains four books, (from the fifth to the eighth inclusive,) and presents us with events which happened between A. D. 1099 and A. D. 1192. Owing probably to the thickness of the first volume, book 5. is placed at the opening of Vol. II. : but in fact it belongs to the first crusade, and now stands awkwardly detached from the preceding recitals. It contains, however, much curious matter, and will be perused with satisfaction by those who wish to be well acquainted with this portion of history. The reader will perceive that, after the capture of the Holy City by Godfrey, and the establishment of the kingdom of Jerusalem under him as its sovereign, (though he refused to invest his brow with the crown of gold which was offered him, in the place where his Saviour wore a crown of thorns,) the extent of territory acquired by the Crusaders in Asia was not inconsiderable. Many large cities, as Tyre, Ptolemais, Tripoli, Antioch, Aleppo, Edessa, &c. fell into their hands. The banks of the Jordan, of the Orontes, and of the Euphrates, were visited by the soldiers of the cross ; and, though these distant exploits against the disciples of Mohammed were more bloody than profitable, they manifest the zeal with which the subjects of Godfrey were inspired. The Holy Land, which it was the object of the crusaders to wrest from the infidels, formed in antient times the kingdoms of Israel and Judah ; and, after its conquest by the Romans, it obtained the name of Palestine. Of this country, it is remarked by the author that,

‘ At the time of the crusades, as now, a great portion of the soil of Palestine, especially where the arid mountains of Sion, Hebron, Ebal, and Gilboa, raise their lofty heads, presents a surface of country on which the curse of heaven seems to have fallen. This land, formerly promised to the chosen people of God, had often changed its inhabitants ; all the Mussulman sects and dynasties, with

arms in their hands, had disputed the possession of it; revolutions and war had involved the capital and most parts of the provinces in ruins; and the religious ideas of Mussulmans and Christians alone seem to give any value to the conquest of Judea. History, however, ought to be on her guard against those exaggerations with which certain travellers have spoken of the sterility of this unhappy country*. In spite of the scourges which for many ages have desolated the provinces of Palestine, some traces of its antient splendour may be discovered. The shores of the lake of Galilee and of the river Jordan, — some vallies watered by the Besor, the Arnon, and the Jaboc, — and the plains near the sea, which war had not ravaged, — bring to our recollection, by their fertility, the promises of Scripture. Palestine had preserved some flourishing cities; while many of her ports offered a convenient asylum to the vessels of Europe and Asia.

It was not the value of Palestine, considered either as an agricultural or a commercial country, which made it an object of desire to the Christians: the accommodation of pilgrims was more consulted than that of traders, and the expulsion of the Saracens than the cultivation of the soil. The new king of Jerusalem, however, was not inactive, but exerted himself to secure a dominion which he had recently obtained by conquest.

* The first care of Godfrey was to repress the hostilities of the Saracens, and to enlarge the frontiers of a kingdom of which he had undertaken the defence. By his orders, Tancred entered into Galilee, and took possession of Tiberias and many other cities in the neighbourhood of the lake of Genesareth. As a reward of his labours, he obtained the country which he had conquered, and which was afterward erected into a principality. Tancred, master of a rich province, advanced towards the territory of Damascus; while Godfrey, in a successful excursion, imposed a tribute on the Emirs of Casarea, Ptolemais, and Ascalon; the Arabs, also, who dwelled on the left bank of the Jordan, submitted to his arms. On returning victorious to Jerusalem, he learnt that the city of Asher, which yielded to him after the battle of Ascalon, refused to pay the imposed tribute, and threw off the Christian yoke. Godfrey, determined to lay siege to this rebellious city, assembled his troops, conducted them to Asher, and made every preparation for attacking it by assault. Already had the rolling towers approached the ramparts, the battering rams had shaken the walls, and the city was about to be carried by storm, when the besieged employed a means of defence worthy only of barbarians. Gerard of Avesnes, who had been given to them as a hostage by Godfrey, being fastened to the top of a very long pole, was placed on a small scaffold, which the assailants directed the whole force.

* On this subject, the excellent dissertation by 50th vol. of the *Mém.*

of an inevitable and inglorious death, this miserable Christian cavalier uttered the most pitiable cries, and conjured his friend Godfrey to save his life by making a voluntary retreat: but this cruel spectacle, though it rent the heart of Godfrey, did not shake his resolution nor his courage. Being sufficiently near to Gerard d'Avesnes to be heard by him, he exhorted him, by his resignation, to merit the crown of martyrdom. "It is not in my power," said he, "to save you; if even my own brother Eustace were in your place, I should consign him to death. Die, then, illustrious and brave cavalier, with the courage of a Christian hero; die for the safety of your brethren, and for the glory of Jesus Christ." These words of Godfrey gave Gerard courage to die; he requested his old companions to offer his horse and his arms at the Holy Sepulchre, and desired them to grant him their prayers for the salvation of his soul. Soon afterward, he fell under a shower of lances from the Christians. The soldiers of Godfrey, on seeing Gerard expire, burned with fury to avenge his death, and redoubled their efforts to make themselves masters of the city: while the besieged reproached the Christians with barbarity, and defended themselves with rage. The *Greek fire* destroyed the towers and machines of the assailants; and Godfrey, losing a great number of his warriors, despaired of taking the city, which received succour by sea. As the winter was advanced, he resolved at last to raise the siege, and to return to Jerusalem; deeply afflicted at having been the cause of the death of Gerard d'Avesnes, without gaining any advantage for the Christian cause.'

This passage affords a sufficient specimen of the kind of warfare which was carried on by the crusaders and their enemies; of the animosity which prevailed between them; of the enthusiasm of the Christian army in prosecuting their conquests; and of the dangerous state of the kingdom of Jerusalem and its dependencies, in spite of all their efforts. Of the *Greek fire* here mentioned, an account is given, in No. 13. of *Pièces justificatives*, or *authorities*, subjoined at the end of the volume, extracted from a MS. life of Saladin, by Renaudot. Here it is remarked;

'It is certain that the artificial fire, called *feu grégeois*, *feu de mer*, or *feu liquide*, the composition of which may be found in the Greek and Latin historians, was very different from that which the people of the east began at this period to use, and the effect of which became the more surprising as the cause of it was altogether unknown: since, instead of the former, which was composed of wax, rosin, sulphur, and other combustible materials, this latter was nothing more than naptha, or petroleum, of which they had springs near Bagdad, as the antients had near old Ecbatana, on the frontiers of Media. Naturalists agree that this bituminous matter easily takes fire, and that it is impossible to extinguish it but with sand, vinegar, or urine. Trial was made of it before Alexander, by setting a large quantity of it on fire by trains, which burned a very long time without being extinguished; and a buffoon being only rubbed with it, the fire hurt

him in such a manner that his life was saved with difficulty. Though, however, the antients were acquainted with it, we do not find that they ordinarily availed themselves of it in war. — It is very probable that, the Orientals not having employed it before this siege, Ebu-el-Mejas fortunately made use of it as a new invention; and that the Christians, on account of its resemblance, called it *feu grec*, or Grecian fire, following the idea which they entertained that it was the same with the composition which bore that name throughout the Levant. This fire, having been used in the defence of besieged places, was called *Oleum incendiarium*, *oleum Medicum*, and was employed in the time of Valentinian; under whom Vegetius, a military author, who gives the ingredients of it, composed his work. Æneas, an antient writer cited by Polybius, also speaks of it in his *Treatise on the Defence of Cities*; and Callinicus adds nothing new, unless it be the machines or pipes of copper, by means of which he first used it at sea, and burnt the fleet of the Arabians near Cyzicum. The Greeks continued to employ these machines, with which they armed their fire-ships, and never communicated the secret to other nations; nor did the Mohammedans ever reveal their fire of naphtha, when they had once learnt the use of it. Thus the names were interchanged by the ignorance of the two nations; the Greeks very properly calling *feu de Medie*, or Median fire, the artificial fire of the Mohammedans; while the Latins included both sorts under the name of *feu grégeois*: as in after times the people of the East called gunpowder *naphtha*, in consequence of the similarity discovered between it and the fire which it induced them to abandon.'

Should this note raise expectations which it does not fully gratify, and the reader be still at a loss respecting the composition of the true Grecian fire, the *amateurs* of destruction may probably derive some consolation by thinking that, if we have not penetrated the secret of the antients, we have a very good substitute in those precious instruments of annoyance and devastation, the Congreve Rockets.

Of Godfrey, a very high character is given in this history; in which he is compared to Judas Maccabeus, and is represented as surpassing in military abilities all the captains of his age. His son Baldwin, who succeeded, after a little contest, to the crown of Jerusalem, possessed the spirit of his father, combined in his character the same strange mixture of religious zeal and warlike enterprize, and experienced the reverses which seemed to belong to an empire formed out of the materials of which his kingdom was composed. M. MICHAUD relates the generous conduct of Baldwin, after having routed the Egyptian army, towards the wife of a Mussulman who was taken in labour at the moment of flight, and left behind. On discovering her, he placed her on a carpet, covered her with his cloak, ordered her fruit and water, and a female camel to furnish milk for the infant. She was then given in charge to a slave,

a slave, who was directed, when she had recovered, to conduct her to her husband. For this act of humanity, the king of Jerusalem was amply rewarded. He soon experienced a defeat, and was in danger of being made prisoner, when the husband of the lady, an officer of rank in the Mussulman army, repaid the act of kindness to his wife by rescuing Baldwin from his perilous condition. — The horrid details of war are happily relieved by such episodes: but alas! they are like the verdant oases of the desert, bearing a very small proportion to the arid wastes which surround them. The ferocity, brutality, and ignorance of the crusaders are indeed more apparent than their virtues; and, though the cross appeared on their banners, the spirit of Christ did not illuminate their minds. On the capture of Tripoli, a counterpart to the lamentable conduct of the Caliph who ordered the fine library of Alexandria to be destroyed, was supplied by a Christian General, under the direction of a Christian Priest. ‘In this city, among other riches, was a library, famous throughout the East for its treasures of the antient literature of the Persians, Arabians, Egyptians, and Greeks. After the taking of this city, a priest belonging to Count Bertrand St. Giles entered the hall in which a great number of copies of the Koran were collected, and, on his declaring that the library of Tripoli contained only the impious books of Mohammed, they were given to the flames.’ For the knowlege of this specimen of crusading zeal, we are indebted to Arabian writers, and not to our own historians; for M. MICHAUD adds, ‘Some oriental writers have bitterly deplored this irreparable loss, but none of our own contemporary chroniclers speaks of it; and their silence marks the profound indifference with which the soldiers of the Franks looked on a conflagration which consumed 100,000 volumes.’

We need not follow this author through recitals which have been often given, though rarely with so much minuteness; nor is it necessary that we should trace the succession of the several Baldwins who were kings of Jerusalem, or discuss the circumstances which terminated the first crusade. The following brief sketch of the reign of Baldwin I. will shew the tottering state of his kingdom. ‘Baldwin lived and died in the midst of camps; and during his reign, which lasted eighteen years, the inhabitants of Jerusalem were annually roused by the sound of the great bell which announced the approach of the Saracens. Scarcely ever was seen in the sanctuary the wood of the true cross, because it accompanied the armies to the war, the sight of which was often sufficient to insure victory to the Christians.’

The capture of Edessa by Zenghi was fatal to the power of the Christians in the East. They lost here 30,000 killed, and 15,000 prisoners fell into the hands of the infidels; and so hopeless was the state of their affairs, that the faithful in the East were of opinion that Heaven had decided against them. Thus terminated the first Crusade.

In the sixth book, which treats of the second Crusade, and includes the period between A. D. 1142 and 1148, a farther account is given of these frantic invasions of the Holy Land. Experience had not taught wisdom to the nations of Europe, nor had their immense losses abated their enthusiasm. By the same address to their passions which animated the adventurers in the first crusade, the people of the West were enflamed to enter on a second. It is observed by this historian :

‘ The Christian colonies, menaced by the Mussulmans, called on the princes of Europe to lend them succour; and the Bishop of Gaball in Syria, accompanied by a great number of priests and cavaliers, presented himself at Viterbo before the sovereign Pontiff, where his recitals drew tears from the chief of the faithful. The misfortunes of Edessa, and the evils which menaced Jerusalem, diffused every where consternation and grief. Cries of alarm echoed throughout the West. Forty-five years had elapsed since the deliverance of the Holy Sepulchre; yet the spirit of the people was not changed; so that they every where ran to arms. At the call of St. Bernard, Christian kings and people ranged themselves under the standard of the cross.’

The address of the Abbé of Clairvaux, on inducing the Emperor of Germany and the King of France to espouse the cause, the army which he raised, the disasters of the march, their successes and failures, the dissensions and dissolute manners which prevailed among these soldiers of the cross, and at last the fatal termination of this expedition, are all minutely related, combining the details of the Arabian authors with those of our chroniclers: but we must pass over these details. It is curious, however, to observe that St. Bernard, on perceiving the unsuccessful issue of this second crusade, had the address to exonerate himself from blame, and to ascribe its failure to the crimes of his followers.

‘ In his apology, (says the author,) he attributes the bad success of the Holy War to the disorders and crimes of the Christians, comparing them to the Israelites, to whom Moses, in the name of Heaven, had promised the land of Canaan, but who perished during their journey to it, because in a thousand instances they had sinned against God.

‘ We might, however, reply to St. Bernard, that he ought to have prevented the excesses and disorders of an undisciplined multitude, and that the *brigands* called to the crusade were not the people of God. Better reasons should be offered, by the Abbé of Clairvaux, for the justification of the Holy War.’

Book vi. concludes with a comparison of the characters of the Abbé Suger and St. Bernard.

We are conducted to the events which marked the third Crusade, in the seventh and eighth books of this history. Here Nouredin, the son of Zenghi, presents himself as a formidable champion of Islamism before the Christians of the East; and Baldwin the Third was required to stop his progress: but he was soon poisoned by a Syrian physician, as he was occupied in relieving the principality of Antioch. His brother Amaury, Baldwin IV., was then called to the throne: but he was attacked by formidable foes, who under the able conduct of Saladin threatened the subversion of his kingdom, and obtained such advantages over him that he was obliged to sue for peace. Disabled by leprosy and blindness, Amaury sank into such a state both of body and mind, that he became incapacitated for government; which rendered necessary the appointment of a successor, the fifth and last Baldwin who reigned as king of Jerusalem. He was succeeded by Guy Lusignan, who married Sybilla the daughter of Amaury: but, with a haughty spirit not calculated to conciliate friends, with subjects prepared for revolt, and with enemies on the alert to take advantage of the dissention of the Christians, a dark prospect was opened before him. On viewing the scene about to be disclosed, the historian tells us that the pen falls from his hand, he is so much shocked by the events which remain to be described. After having adverted to the omens and signs which were supposed to foretell the downfall of states, M. MICHAUD thus continues:

‘Such were the presages which struck the majority of Christians: but enlightened men perceived more certain signs of the approaching fall of the kingdom of Jerusalem. Mousul, Aleppo, and all the Mussulman cities of Syria and Mesopotamia, had acknowledged the rule of Saladin. The sons of Ayoub had triumphed over the Emirs and the dispersed family of Nouredin. All the treasures of Egypt, and all the forces of Asia, were in his hands; no conquest remained for him to make; while fortune, which had smoothed all difficulties before him, soon furnished him with a pretext for aiming the last stroke against the Christian power.’

The truce between the Mohammedans and the Christians having been broken at once by both parties, a war commenced of which the details have been often related. It may be interesting, however, to afford a specimen of the manner in which that decisive victory of Saladin over Lusignan, which led to his possession of the Holy City, is here narrated; because M. MICHAUD derives his information from the double source of Oriental and Christian authority.

‘The historians of the east, in recounting this victory of the Saracens, have celebrated the bravery and constancy which they displayed

played in this struggle with the cavaliers of the Franks; who were covered with cuirasses made of rings of iron, (chain-mail). These brave warriors presented an impenetrable wall to the strokes of the Saracens: but, when their horses fell, exhausted by fatigue, or wounded by lances or javelins, Saladin found scarcely any resistance, and the battle became a most horrible carnage. Even an Arabian author, secretary and companion of Saladin, who was present at this terrible combat, has not been able to restrain himself from deploring the disasters of the vanquished. "I have seen," he exclaims, "hills, plains, and vallies, covered with their dead; I have seen their flags abandoned, and soiled with blood and dust; I have seen their heads struck off, their members dispersed, and their bodies thrown pell-mell together in a heap like stones." After the battle, the cords of the tents would not suffice to tie the prisoners: whom the conquerors distributed among them, and of whom the number was so very great that, according to the report of an historian, a Christian cavalier was sold for a pair of shoes.

'Saladin ordered a tent to be prepared in the middle of his camp, in which he received Guy Lusignan, and the principal chiefs of the Christian army whom victory had thrown into his hands.'

The interview is then described, as well as the horrid massacre by which Saladin dishonoured his victory, and the terror which his name inspired. After having related the fall of Ascalon, M. MICHAUD proceeds:

'The moment was now arrived in which Jerusalem was about to fall again under the power of infidels. After having taken Gaza and many neighbouring fortresses, the Sultan assembled his army, and marched towards the Holy City. A queen in tears, children of warriors slain in the battle of Tiberias, some fugitive soldiers, and some pilgrims recently come from the West, constituted the whole guard of the Holy Sepulchre. A number of Christian families, who had quitted the desolated provinces of Palestine, filled the capital: but, so far from bringing succour, they only augmented the trouble and consternation which reigned there. When Saladin approached the Holy City, he ordered its principal inhabitants to appear before him, and addressed them in these words: "I know, as well as you, that Jerusalem is the house of God, and do not wish to profane its sanctity by the effusion of blood; quit its walls, and I will give you a part of my riches; I will give you as much land as you can cultivate." — They replied to him, "We cannot surrender a city in which our God expired; much less can we surrender it to you." Saladin, irritated by this refusal, swore by the Koran to overturn the towers and ramparts of Jerusalem and to avenge the death of those Mussulmans who were killed by the companions and soldiers of Godfrey of Bouillon.

'He encamped for some days to the West of the city, and directed his attack towards the north; mining the ramparts which extended from the gate of Jehosaphat to that of St. Stephen. The brave Christians made a sortie to destroy the machines and labours of the assailants: but they could not interrupt the progress of the siege.

In

In the midst of the general trouble and agitation, a plot was discovered for delivering up Jerusalem to the Mussulmans; a discovery which redoubled the alarm, and determined the principal inhabitants to demand a capitulation. Accompanied by Balian d'Ibelin, they went to the Sultan, and proposed to surrender the place on those conditions which he himself had offered before the siege: but Saladin, recollecting that he had sworn to take the city by assault, and to put all the inhabitants to the sword, sent back the deputies without hope; and, though Balian d'Ibelin returned several times with supplications and entreaties, he found Saladin inexorable. One day, as the deputies were strongly urging him to accept their capitulation, he pointed to his standards which floated on the walls, saying, "Would you that I should grant conditions to a city that is taken?" The Saracens nevertheless were repulsed. Then Balian, re-animated by the success which the Christians had just obtained, replied to the Sultan, "You perceive that Jerusalem is not in want of defenders; if we cannot obtain from you any pity, we shall take a terrible resolution, and the excesses of our despair will fill you with alarm. Those temples and palaces, which you wish to conquer, shall be completely overturned. We will destroy the mosque of Omar; the mysterious stone of Jacob, the object of your reverence, shall be broken and reduced to powder; the five thousand Mussulman prisoners which Jerusalem contains shall be put to the sword; we will destroy our women and children," &c.

' This discourse so alarmed Saladin, that, on the following day, he invited the deputies to return; and he consulted the doctors of the law, who decided that he could accept of a capitulation without breaking his oath. The next day, therefore, witnessed the signature of a treaty in the Sultan's tent. Thus Jerusalem came again under the dominion of the infidels, after it had been, during eighty years, in the hands of the Christians. The Latin historians have remarked that the crusaders entered the Holy City on a Friday, at the very hour in which Jesus Christ had submitted to death, to expiate the crimes of the human race; and the Saracens took the city on a Friday, the anniversary of the day on which, according to their belief, Mohammed quitted Jerusalem, and ascended to heaven. This circumstance, which possibly determined Saladin to sign the capitulation that was proposed to him, did not fail to give fresh celebrity to his triumph among his followers, and to make them regard him as the favourite of the Prophet.

' All the warriors, who were found in Jerusalem at the signature of the capitulation, obtained permission to withdraw either to Tyre or to Tripoli; and the conqueror granted life to the inhabitants, and permitted them to purchase their liberty. All Christians, with the exception of Greeks and Syrians, were ordered to leave Jerusalem within four days. The fixed ransom for men was ten pieces of gold, five for women, and two for children. Those who could not redeem themselves remained in slavery. — At last, the fatal day arrived, on which the Christians were forced to quit Jerusalem. All the gates of the city were closed, excepting that of David, through which the people were to make their egress; and Saladin, elevated on a throne,

saw all the Christians pass before him. The patriarch, attended by his clergy, appeared first, carrying the sacred vessels, the ornaments of the church of the Holy Sepulchre, and treasures of which, says an Arabian writer, God only knew the value. The Queen of Jerusalem*, accompanied by the principal barons and cavaliers, followed. Saladin respected her grief, and spoke kindly to her. In the train also of the queen was a great number of women, with children in their arms, uttering piercing cries; many of whom, approaching the throne of Saladin, thus addressed him: "You see at your feet the wives, mothers, and daughters of warriors whom you have made prisoners; we quit for ever our country which they have defended with glory; they helped us to support life; and in losing them we have lost our last hope: if you will permit us to join them, they will alleviate the misery of our exile, and we shall not be without support on the earth." Saladin, moved by their prayers, promised to relieve the evils of so many distressed families; and he gave to mothers those children, to wives those husbands, who were found among the captives. At the commencement of the siege, the Holy City contained more than 100,000 Christians; many purchased their liberty; and only 15,000 remained in captivity.'

This passage (which we have abridged) is succeeded by an account of Saladin's triumphal entry into Jerusalem: but we have transcribed enough to shew the minuteness with which M. MICHAUD recounts the events of the war.

Our readers will perhaps excuse us from protracting this article by any extracts from the eighth book, which includes the particulars of the third crusade, and in which the historian is equally diffuse. From what we have perused, and from the prospectus of the contents of the third and fourth volumes, we feel justified in asserting that his work, when completed, will contain a very satisfactory picture of the Crusades. If the promised volumes should ever come before us, we shall not perhaps deem it necessary to copy any of the details, but may confine our notice to those reflections and general views which the author purposes to offer respecting this very singular feature in Christian ecclesiastical history.

* Mariana and most modern historians have said, that Queen Sybilla was not at Jerusalem during the siege, but they were mistaken. The author of the *Roudatâins* (the two gardens) expressly asserts that this princess left Jerusalem with the other captives, followed by her treasure and servants. She asked permission of Saladin to join her husband who was detained at Nablous, and guarded like a prisoner.'

ART. XIX. *Essai sur la Détermination, &c. ; i. e.* An Essay on the Determination, of the Physico-Mathematical Bases of the Musical Art. By G. M. RAYMOND, Member of various Societies, and Professor of Mathematics and Physics. 8vo. pp. 95. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe.

IN the course of a literary life, it frequently occurs to observation, that men take much pains to prove that which experience and the practice of the world have already placed beyond all reasonable doubt: but it is not on this account that we should despise such researches. Human reasonings on philosophical subjects can never be so worthy of attention and consideration, as when their results go hand in hand with nature. They will then be useful as forming a preventive against future errors and misconceptions, to which every branch of science must be exposed as long as its votaries are merely pursuing established practices, without knowing the grounds and principles on which such establishment is founded. The present essay is valuable in this view. It offers no new points of science, but it brings under observation some which ought to be prevented from passing unnoticed, as illustrating the long prevailing practice of the art to which it relates.

We see that the votaries of every art naturally endeavour to draw within its scope as many different materials as they can; and this remark can in few instances be more strongly illustrated than in the art of music, since the class of bodies capable of affecting us by the medium of sound is perhaps as numerous as any other description of objects with which our senses make us acquainted. Out of this large number of objects, however, it is immediately obvious that a selection must be made, when the question respects the application of sound to purposes of music. We accordingly reject all the others; and, in doing this, we may go a great way without encountering any difference of opinion. No one would contend for retaining a cracked bell, or a broken whistle; and very few for a child's trumpet, or the jingle of a team of horses loaded with bells: — while, on the other hand, no one would wish to reject the harp of Æolus, or the notes of a nightingale. Still, in tracing the progress farther on, we come to difficulties; and here, as in all other similar cases, a line must be drawn: while objects are continually presenting themselves for which we find it difficult to assign a station on the one side of it or on the other. It is towards the establishment of a criterion of judgment in such cases that the present Essay is directed; and the author has, at least, the merit of having sought for that criterion in the only quarter in which it could be reasonably expected to be found; — namely, by considering of what materials

materials nature has made use, and in what combinations she has employed them, in order to produce pleasurable sensations through the medium of those organs which she has given us for appreciating sounds. This discussion involves the consideration also of the nature of those organs themselves; and, when we are brought to understand what instruments nature allots for the production of musical effects, and by what media she has rendered us capable of deriving pleasure or pain from those effects, we are at once enabled to compare the former with the latter; and, as far as the subject admits, to apply the same principles of adaptation with reference to those *artificial* instruments by which we design to extend this branch of our natural pleasures. At all events, this process will afford a reason for not employing such means as, by this fair and reasonable analogy, seem to be incapable of producing the intended result. We are aware, at the same time, that this argumentation may be carried too far; and we would by no means be understood as setting it up to the exclusion of experiment. Most reasonings, which depend on the scientific acquisition of facts, must be imperfect, because facts can seldom be acquired with absolute certainty, or to such an extent that we can pronounce our knowledge of them to be complete in all its bearings. Until a science can be reduced to that certainty, and carried to that extent, we shall always find room for experiment; and (as we commenced with observing) experiment will in future, as it has done in times past, most commonly precede the conclusions by which its results might be established.

The subject naturally divides itself into four different heads. 1. The Composition of the Human Ear: 2. The Composition of such Instruments (including among others animal organs) as are naturally and by common Consent capable of producing Musical Sounds: 3. The Rules on which Musical Effects of Sound are generally believed to depend; and 4. How far Natural Instruments agree with these Rules, or differ from them.

1. The composition of the human ear is such as to evince, at first sight, that all musical effects, and indeed the whole system of *sound* in general, must depend on vibration. It consists of tubes filled with air; fibres in a state of tension, resting on bones, extremely delicate, and apparently calculated for transmitting the vibration of one part to another; a membrane resembling a drum; and some gelatinous or fluid matters, contributing to elasticity and vibration: the whole arranged in a cavity calculated to increase sonorous effect. In this manner, the first and second heads of our division mutually bear on each other. We know that tubes, strings, and cavities, are
capable

capable of the effects ascribed to them, by daily experience; and we know by experiment that these effects are the result of vibration, and that one vibrating body is capable of producing vibration in another similar body, by juxta-position, or other means:—the whole of this being deducible from the single proposition that the atmosphere is a fluid. Anatomy makes us acquainted practically with the composition of our own organs; and we have but to compare the one with the other to induce the conclusion that the ear is a compound of vibrating substances, and excited to action by the vibration of other bodies: the result of which excitation we call sound. Experience, however, soon teaches us that all sounds are not pleasant; that the ear is limited in its capacity; and that some sorts of vibration produce pain, while others are followed by sensations equally pleasurable. Hence arises the distinction between musical sounds and those which are not musical; and then pursuing the subject into its more refined parts, we are led to conclude that vibration and sound are synonymous, and that the relation which we are able to establish with reference to the one will afford a sufficient guidance with respect to the other also. Now, vibrations can only be compared arithmetically; and hence has arisen the application of arithmetic to music, on which most of the established rules of the art are founded. Arithmetic is, indeed, rather a seducing companion in this inquiry; and it is not unfrequently necessary for us to be on our guard, lest it should mislead us. It is easy enough to calculate a progression of numbers, and to determine the effect of a succession of sounds accordingly: but experience will not justify the conclusion; and we are obliged, after all, to mix some discords with our harmony, in order to heighten, if not to produce, the effect at which we aim.

2. Having thus acquired a knowledge of the organ through which we are to receive pleasure from musical sounds, we advance, in some measure prepared, to inquire what instruments nature has employed for exciting this organ to the perception of its pleasure. We know, from the science of acoustics, that all vibrating bodies, at a certain velocity, will produce sound; and that the intensity of the sound depends on the degree of velocity. For the qualities of sounds we must find another criterion; and we naturally look to their relation one to another. The first and most obvious instrument of music is the human voice; and, attending to the anatomy of its organs, it is also the most complicated:—by universal consent, we believe, it is deemed the most beautiful. An analysis of the component parts of the organs of voice shews them to consist nearly of the same materials as the ear: a flexible tube,

with cartilaginous sides, capable of dilatation and contraction, and composed of vibrating strings or fibres, produces, by the action of very delicate muscles, all the varieties of human sounds. The corresponding organs of other animals exhibit some of the same materials in different combinations, but in a less perfect degree; and, according as they approach to or depart from this model, they are pleasing or disagreeable. Artificial instruments of music have, for the most part, borrowed similar materials: — they consist either of sonorous tubes, as organs, flutes, hautbois, trumpets, and horns; of vibrating strings, as the harp; or of both in combination, as the violin. Now all these materials are found to produce sounds of the same kinds, in the same relations to each other; and here again experience has led the way to science. It was originally discovered by experiment that every sound was complex; and that a string, set to vibrate, yielded not merely the principal tone, but also others, more acute and less easily perceptible, but bearing in all cases a fixed and certain relation to the principal tone. By deduction from this discovery, the modern gammut (so far at least as the *diatonic* successions are concerned) has been framed. This effect is found to be precisely the same, whether a string or a wind instrument, or both, be employed in the experiment; the relations of sounds being absolutely identical in instruments of both those kinds: but, when the experiment is tried with other sonorous bodies, such as vibrating plates, harmonic glasses, bells, metal bars, &c., although the like general character of complexity exists, the sounds produced are found not to bear the same relative proportions to each other; and it is also observed that each sonorous body of this class is subjected to laws of its own, differing from those which govern every other. This consideration leads to the establishment of two grand classes of bodies, capable of exciting the sensation of sound; 1st. Vibrating strings and tubes; 2d. Bodies possessing in themselves so much elasticity as to be naturally sonorous: the former subjected to one law of nature, and the latter to several other laws. The question is, whether one only of these classes can be employed in music; or whether both may be so employed?

3. We are thus led to the next branch of the subject, viz. the laws on which musical effects have been supposed to depend. Here we set out with one observation to which it is very important to attend, and we scarcely know whether to consider it as affording an useful argument, or as leading to a dangerous prejudice on the subject: viz. *all these laws have been deduced from bodies of the first class.* Now, on the one hand, it may be said that this circumstance affords a prejudice

in their favour, against which no arguments in support of the second class can be expected to have much power: — that, in fact, it excludes all such arguments, because they proceed on principles which are inapplicable. On the other hand, it may be urged that the very choice itself has determined the question in favour of bodies of the first class; and that, when the whole range of sonorous bodies of both classes was offered for choice, the mere circumstance of this one class having been selected by universal consent is a proof that it was the only one that was adapted to produce the pleasure which was sought. We are inclined to agree with the latter reasoning; though we must admit some suspicion of prejudice. The deductions from the phænomena of sound, as exhibited by vibrating strings and tubes, having led to the formation of the musical gammut as it is at present used, the progression of the arithmetical denomination for the notes is, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c.; that is, 1 being taken as the length of a string producing a given fundamental sound, $\frac{1}{2}$ of that length will produce the octave of the same sound, $\frac{2}{3}$ the fifth, $\frac{3}{4}$ the fourth, $\frac{4}{5}$ the major third, $\frac{5}{6}$ the minor third, and so on; which, being inverted, will give the scale thus: 1. $\frac{1}{2} : \frac{2}{3} : \frac{3}{4} : \frac{4}{5} : \frac{5}{6}$, &c. the number of vibrations being always in an inverse ratio to the lengths of the strings. The origin of the scale has, indeed, been matter of dispute; and many very respectable writers refuse to ascribe it to the harmonies: but the majority have considered it as so derived, and this, we believe, may be taken to be the prevailing opinion at the present day.

4. If this law of musical sounds has been rightly laid down, it will follow that those bodies which, by their natural constitution, are incapable of being subjected to it, must be deemed unfit for employment in this art. Now, in bodies naturally sonorous from their own elasticity, we do not find these proportions. On the contrary, their harmonies are subject to laws and proportions very different; and not the same in any two cases. For instance, in the case of elastic metal rods, the number of vibrations is in an inverse ratio to the squares only of the lengths; and this, again, varies as the rod is fastened or supported at one or at both ends. In the same manner, curved rods, forks, rings, and plates, (whether flat or curved,) give out harmonies bearing different relations to the principal sound and to one another.

It would, perhaps, be possible to frame a succession of sounds forming a musical scale or gammut according to any one of the systems applicable to bodies naturally sonorous: but it never has been attempted, at least as far as we recollect. Such

an experiment, however, is certainly wanting to complete our knowledge on this subject, though we see not the least reason for expecting that it would produce any agreeable effect. On the contrary, we can scarcely doubt that it would lead to the production of a mere jargon of sounds, intolerable to the ear.

Having thus examined the question in detail, it only remains for us briefly to draw the conclusion. All our laws of harmony are founded on the relations of sounds produced from strings, and wind-instruments; or, if not founded on them, they agree with them: while the sounds produced from bodies sonorous by nature have not the same relations. Their harmonies therefore differing, it seems impossible to use the two sorts of bodies together for musical purposes without producing great discordance. It is not of much consequence whether the established rules have been properly or improperly adopted; they are, at least, so far settled that they cannot now be altered without ruining the whole system.

Moreover, the reasons deduced from the anatomical structure of the organs of voice, and of hearing, do certainly afford a very strong argument to shew that the laws in question have been established in conformity with the feelings and laws of our nature. Those organs are composed of strings, tubes, and vibrating surfaces; and it is at least probable that agreeable sensation is the result of vibrations bearing certain harmonic proportions to each other, and that those proportions are the same which in the external world prevail in bodies of similar kinds. Accordingly, we find that bodies of the second class have in very few instances been employed in music, except where a bold and harsh effect was intended; or in those cases in which (as in that of a wire-string) they approximate so nearly to the other class of bodies as to be subjected to the same laws, and to produce the same effects.

We have preferred to give our readers an independent view of this question, instead of making a mere abstract of M. RAYMOND's treatise: but we have for the most part borrowed his reasonings, and adopted his conclusions. This, we believe, is a subject on which much controversy has prevailed among French writers on music, who have always been a numerous body: but it does not appear to us to possess much interest in the present state of the science. Indeed, it may be said that it is not a matter of any great moment to determine the causes of the pleasure which we receive from any of the fine arts. It is sufficient that principles exist within us, by which we are enabled to enjoy the charms of poetry and music; and to make those distinctions in favour of the sublime and beautiful which constitute so large a portion of the enjoyment of the more
civilized

civilized part of mankind. The discussions, which have taken place on the subject of these distinctions in poetry, have led to no very satisfactory or useful results. Notwithstanding all that has been done by Burke, Campbell, Blair, and the numerous other writers on Belles Lettres and Taste, our poets and orators are not, on the whole, materially improved; nor are our critics better agreed on the principles of their vocation. We fear that Music cannot expect much more to be done for her: — but, be that as it may, the lovers of the art are unquestionably indebted to those writers who, like M. RAYMOND, apply themselves with ingenuity and candour to elucidate its principles, and to connect its established laws with those of nature; in which, it cannot be too often inculcated, all our pleasures should be ultimately founded.

ART. XX. C. M. WIELAND's *Sämmtliche Werke*. i. e. The Collective Works of C. M. WIELAND. Vols. XXXI.—XXXIX. 8vo. Leipzig.

OUR successive accounts of the preceding portions of this revised edition of the works of WIELAND terminated at p. 495. of our twenty-sixth volume. The long unsettled state of the Continent has interrupted our opportunities of communicating with Leipzig, and prevented us from receiving until now this fourth and final decad, of which the latest volume is dated in 1811. The fortieth and concluding volume will contain a life of the author, derived from papers prepared for that purpose by himself, and consigned in his will to the care of his literary friend and coadjutor M. Böttiger.

Volume xxxi. contains twelve dialogues *between four eyes*, as the German idiom states it; or, as we might say, *between a pair of tongues*: the French *tête-à-tête* not being easily rendered in the Gothic dialects by a parallel popular expression. These dialogues agitate questions growing out of the French Revolution, and of the political circumstances of Germany: they have lost something of their interest by the rapid torrent of succeeding events: but they may still be admired for refinement of allusion, for volubility of thought, and for that courageous urbanity which knows how to give the boldest advice in the gentlest forms of courtesy. It will suffice to specify the several titles. 1. What should we lose or gain by the Decay of certain Prejudices? 2. On the Oath of hatred to Royalty. 3. Inquiry into the relative Value of Representative Democracy, and Hereditary Royalty. 4. What is to be done? 5. Attempt to conciliate the Claims of Democracy and Royalty. 6. Of Universal Democracy. 7. Of the French Republic.

public. 8. What will come of all this? 9. On Public Opinion. 10. Dreams with my Eyes open. 11. Peeps into Futurity. 12. Fragment of a Dialogue between Geron and an Incognito. This last character is supposed to indicate the Russian Emperor Alexander. Of all the dialogues, the most remarkable, though not the best, is the second; because it first gave that advice on which the French subsequently acted, to vest a temporary dictatorship in *Bonaparte*: but the most important is the tenth; because it suggests a plan for the consolidation of Germany by means of representative institutions, of which the Prussian court is actually availing itself in the recent innovations. WIELAND, though rather an eclectic philosopher than an original thinker, collects from the whole surface of Europe the results of the best discussions, with an equity which has made him in a remarkable degree the herald of public sentiment, and the representative of instructed and disinterested judges. His opinion is never a solitary opinion: the statesman reads his book to know what the world expects from the beneficence of sovereigns; and his advice is sure to be weighed by such as are within reach of those interior seats of political volition, which communicate to the practical world the critical and decisive impulse.

The thirty-second volume exactly contains the history of *Agathodæmon*, which is in fact an attempt to write the life of Apollonius of Thyana; not as we are told by his biographer Philostratus that it did happen, but as it might have happened so as to occasion the very misrepresentations of Philostratus. A train of natural events is every where supposed, such as were adapted to give origin to those strange and miraculous reports that are scattered in his narrative. Thus the legendary matter of Philostratus is plausibly explained; and a natural solution of those wondrous phænomena is attempted, which the credulity of the Empress Julia, wife of Septimius Severus, is stated to have received as proofs of a divine interposition.

The sage of Thyana is described, by M. WIELAND, as directing, through an invisible agency, much of that conspiracy which snatched Domitian from the sovereignty of the Roman empire, and elevated Nerva in his room:—a conspiracy plainly favoured by the Christians, who viewed the execution of the sons of Flavius Sabinus as an avowed determination absolutely to exclude their religion from any chance of accession to the throne. This transaction, imperfectly understood even by Gibbon, and on which we endeavoured to throw some new light (Vol. lxxiii. p. 282.) in a recent dissertation concerning the life of Apollonius, has been sagaciously examined
and

and curiously detailed by WIELAND in a passage which might deserve transcription, were it not too extensive.

Every where M. WIELAND exhibits a deep insight into antiquity, and a consummate knowlege of the times described, but no where is this more remarkable than in the dexterity with which he translates, into the dialect of antiquity, the maxims, institutions, and purposes of modern literary sects. It is so that they would have grown and flourished in those ages and those places; for the men of old were in all likelihood the same as the men of to-day. Only the cant and accent of opinion, only the garb and fashion of pursuit, can change; and all the characters and combinations which are to be observed in our own times may with probability be imputed to the Roman world, when in a similar stage of culture and information.

Volumes xxxiii.—xxxvi. contain the supposed correspondence of Aristippus; a beautiful and classical collection of letters, depicting the Greek world almost as completely as the Travels of Anacharsis, and still more faithfully. We must postpone our analysis, however, to a future opportunity.

The thirty-seventh volume includes *Dialogues*. The thirty-eighth compiles and unites some juvenile fairy-tales of the author, under the title of the *Hexameron of Rosenthal*. The thirty-ninth, which is thoroughly worthy of the maturest excellence of WIELAND, contains two masterly Greek narrations, *Ménander and Glycerion*, and *Krates and Hipparchia*.

ART. XXI. *Éléments, &c.*; i. e. Elements of the Practical Part of Government, by M. LALOUETTE, Member of the Legislative Body, and formerly a Sub-prefect. 4to. pp. 757. Paris.

HAD this title been less general, it would have been more correct, and the compiler should have contented himself with calling his book, "The Elements of the Practical Part of the French Government;" since it consists of nothing more than an enumeration of the dates and titles of the almost endless catalogue of laws, *arrêts*, decrees, *senatus-consulta*, &c. which have been passed in France from the beginning of the Revolution. As titles only are recited, each page of the work contains on an average a notice of eight or ten edicts; so that the total number recapitulated is probably not short of five or six thousand. To render such a mass accessible for any useful purpose, a very clear and methodical arrangement was necessary; and the table of contents will at once satisfy the reader that nothing has been neglected in this respect. Divisions and subdivisions succeed each other with a regularity and nicety which might afford an useful lesson to the compilers of law-books

books in other countries, and which divest this ponderous quarto of a considerable part of its formidable appearance. It is divided into eight parts, treating respectively of financial, military, maritime, departmental, judicial, and religious affairs; with a miscellaneous chapter, under the title of *objets divers*, and another which comprizes a sketch of the fundamental parts of the Constitution as established by *Bonaparte*.

The portion relating to the administration of departments begins with the following titles :

‘ Chap. i. Arrangements for the interior Government of France and her Colonies.

‘ Chap. ii. Arrangements for the Government of the Countries added to the French Empire.

‘ Chap. iii. Public Buildings.

‘ Chap. iv. Departmental Receipt and Expenditure.

‘ Chap. v. Responsibility of the Departmental Governments.

‘ Chap. vi. Superintendance of the Public Money.’

The table of contents extends in this manner for twenty pages, so that very little difficulty is found in turning to any particular head or subdivision of a head.

On referring to p. 436. for the laws on interior administration, we find the list of edicts introduced thus :

‘ 4th March 1790. The King’s letters patent on the decrees of the National Assembly of 15th January.

‘ 16th and 26th February 1790. Ditto ordering the division of France into 83 departments.

‘ 20th April 1790. The King’s letters patent on a decree of the National Assembly, containing sundry enactments relative to the exercise of the police, and the manner of governing districts and departments.’

The body of the book being thus composed, it remains only to notice the introductory part; in which we were amused by finding sentiments on political morality of a higher character than we could have expected under the reign of *Bonaparte*. The section appropriated to *Maximes Générales* begins with these very grave and commendable admonitions :

‘ Patient and attentive behaviour is a virtue in a man in private life, and the duty of a man in a public situation.

‘ To govern others well, we should begin by being masters of ourselves.

‘ In private life, kindness may get the better of justice, but in public business the former should give way to the latter.

‘ A superior is never so great as when he raises his inferiors.

‘ A man in office should say to himself every day, that he is not there for his own sake, but for the sake of those who are subject to his administration.

‘ We only expose government by issuing an order of which we have not the means of enforcing the execution, or by forbidding that which we have not the means of preventing.’

After these well-meant precepts, and several very minute directions regarding the manner of writing and keeping office-papers, we find a kind of dictionary of official words, containing a number of explanations that are useful to persons residing in France.

‘*Acquit* ; the words *pour acquit*, subjoined to an order for payment, delivered by an official authority, and signed by the persons receiving the amount, are deemed a satisfactory receipt.

‘*Adjoints* ; substitutes for the mayors of the *communes* in case of absence or other hindrance. They have no official character, except in the absence of a mayor ; and, when they do act, their interference is confined to matters of police. Their appointment is made, as in the case of the mayor, by the sovereign, when the *commune* contains 5000 inhabitants or more, and by the prefects when it is less populous. The adjoints, like the mayors, are changed once in five years.

‘*Adjudication*, an act by which a public officer adjudges moveable or immoveable property, or imposes the proportion of work and contributions to be furnished. The former takes place by a sale ; the latter *au rabais*, an office-term which will occur in its proper place.

‘*Amenagement*, manner of managing the public woods, agreeably to the laws and edicts of government on the subject of the forests.

‘*Amplification*, an authentic copy of an official act, delivered after having taken the necessary steps for carrying the act into effect.’

M. LALOUETTE’s motto says that the “art of governing consists in making every thing easy by making it methodical ;” and his book may prove, we have no doubt, a very convenient manual to those whose occupations under the French government are such as to call for a reference to a variety of public edicts. Except to the persons thus employed, however, it can possess no farther attraction than law-books at large, since we meet here with no comments on the motives or origin of particular laws ; a brief notice of the title and date being all that entered into the author’s plan.

ART. XXII. *De la Monarchie Française, &c. ; i. e.* Of the French Monarchy, from its Establishment to the present Day ; or Inquiries into the Antient Institutions of France ; into the Causes which produced the Revolution, and its various Shades until *Bonaparte* was declared Emperor ; with a Supplement on the Government of *Bonaparte*, and on the Re-establishment of the House of Bourbon. By Count MONTLOSIER, deputed to the States-General in 1789. 8vo. 3 Vols. Paris.

WE have seldom met with a work of which it was more difficult to give an intelligible report than this ; which has neither index nor table of contents, nor arguments to the chapters ;

chapters; and in which, as far as the text is concerned, it is a matter of no little difficulty to discover the real sentiments of the author. An inquiry into the gradual change of the state of society in France, and into that course of circumstances which paved the way for the Revolution, would be highly interesting in the hands of a writer of real judgment and industry: but, when conducted as in the present volumes, it is little else than a loss of time to endeavour to trace the object and connection of the reasoning. Count MONTLOSIER has, however, prefixed a short account of the motives of his publication, which we shall give in his own words, and which in fact is one of the few intelligible passages in the book.

‘ It is necessary to apprize my readers of the time of composing this work, as well as of the circumstances which induced me to write it. Being in the office of foreign affairs, I was desired by the minister in that department, a few months before *Bonaparte* was declared Emperor, to compose by the command of the First Consul, a book in which I should give an account, first, of the antient state of France and her institutions; secondly, of the manner in which the Revolution arose out of that state of things; thirdly, of the endeavours made to overturn it; fourthly, of the success experienced by the First Consul in repressing these efforts, and in the re-establishment of various usages. It was to be ready and published at the approaching epoch of the declaration of the empire.

‘ This task was of great extent, but I was prepared for it, having made our antient institutions my study from my early years, and having a great many materials ready on that subject. With regard to the Revolution, I had only to bring to my recollection what I had formerly committed to print, either as a member of the National Assembly, or during the time of my emigration. If, with all these advantages, it cost me four years to complete a production which was expected to appear in four months, the delay is to be ascribed not merely to an aversion to put my name in connection with an event to which I was unwilling to give a sanction, but to the particular difficulty of a labour of this kind. That difficulty consisted in a dislike to compose for public inspection a book which I could write only according to my own ideas, and which, I was aware, must consequently be doomed to obscurity and oblivion.

‘ In fulfilling conscientiously the task proposed to me, my object was doubtless to pass encomiums on the man who had conquered the Revolution, and had subsequently occupied himself in laying in different directions the foundations of social order. With regard to that point, I had not waited for the year 1804, but had expressed my opinion in England in various articles of my paper, the *Courier de Londres*.—In reading the proof-sheets, I have discovered certain inaccuracies which had escaped me; and, as I was unwilling to erase them, I have accompanied them by notes, keeping strictly to the plan of giving the performance to the world in the manner in which it was composed for Napoleon.’

Notwithstanding his pretended aversion to bearing a part in sanctioning the usurpation of the imperial dignity by *Bonaparte*, M. MONTLOSIER has chosen, in many passages, to maintain in all their extravagance the arguments brought forwards against England by the disturber of Europe, and his obsequious adherents. We give the following as a specimen:

‘ Much has been said of the official papers that have been published by England on the subject of the preponderance of France. England, after having occupied a large part of Asia, threatened Africa, and covered the whole ocean with demonstrations of her power; after having given birth to a new maritime code, and imposed it on Europe; comes forwards with a very bad grace to bring charges against France. The great danger to Europe lies in the maritime power of England; a danger affecting not only the prosperity but the security and tranquillity of countries. Politicians are too apt in their discussions to separate continental from maritime commerce. Now the two are closely and inseparably connected; so that England, when mistress of the maritime commerce of the world, acquires a similar superiority over Continental commerce. She may throw disorder into a country, by merely withdrawing her merchandise and her capital from it; she may make her neighbours experience the calamities of war, without suffering them herself; and, secure from invasion, she may extend the system of subsidies throughout Europe, and keep the Continent in a perpetual struggle.’

This short extract may suffice to shew the length to which the author carries, or affects to carry, his reasoning with regard to England. ‘ She acts,’ he says, ‘ as if intitled to consider all that she can find at sea a pledge for the conduct of Continental powers. Her code of laws implies that, as soon as she is at war with any one nation, she is intitled to make free with the commerce of all other nations.’ One gratuitous assertion is thus made to succeed another, without any disposition to allow that the measures of November 1807 were examples of an extreme case, and were disavowed as soon as the present ministry was constituted. Our maritime code contains, it is true, some very improper dispositions; such as that of condemning, on the occurrence of a declaration of war, the ships of a foreign power which happen, from whatever cause, to have been under detention at the time. Had M. MONTLOSIER been disposed to view things with an impartial eye, he would have admitted that, among our public men, we have many who disapprove and regret the existence of such regulations; and who are desirous of embracing the first favourable opportunity of erasing them from our code.

Numerous passages of the book are to be considered as mere effusions, and devoid of any definite object, except that of flattering the French public, or displaying the author’s oratorical

torical powers. We turned to the æra of the Revolution, in the hope of finding him improve as he drew nearer to the objects within his own sphere of observation: but we had the mortification of discovering here the same inattention to authorities, with the same crude and exaggerated descriptions. It would be easy to fill our pages with examples of such extravagances: but we prefer to select a passage descriptive of the character of *Bonaparte*, in which M. MONTLOSIER has trespassed less considerably than on other occasions, although he has by no means exhibited a complete portrait:

‘ Thus fell that colossus which had long been for me a subject of contemplation, as for the world at large a subject of astonishment. Without having had personally much opportunity of judging of *Bonaparte*, I took considerable trouble to collect his thoughts and observe his actions. I am inclined to think that he had very little esteem for his species; and it is said that he spoke of justice as an empty word, of goodness as weakness, and of religion as a dream. To sow for the sake of a contingent or eventual harvest was insupportable to him, because any project requiring length of time for its fulfilment appeared to him a chimera. His policy was subsequently different from that of most statesmen, and consisted entirely in expedients; his plan being not to prepare the course of events, but to take forcible possession of them. In this view, nations, opinions, religion, friends, and enemies, were all objects of indifference to him. He shewed himself unequal to a task requiring time, patience, and perseverance.’

It is objected to M. *de Constant*, and other eminent writers, that they deal too much in general effusion, and take little pains to render their reasoning perspicuous by practical illustrations. Now the censure thus partly applicable to these writers comes home in a tenfold degree to M. DE MONTLOSIER; who contrives so to involve his reasoning as to baffle the utmost efforts of persons of plain understandings. On reading a particular passage, such for example as the general reflections on the Revolution at the beginning of his third volume, we are at first induced to consider him in the light not merely of a fluent writer, but as capable of comprehensive views: but this opinion will unfortunately be of short duration when we proceed to subject to analysis any particular portion of his work. He is then found to be exactly one of those authors to whom Thomas Paine might have given with more justice than to Burke the name of *Point no Point*, in allusion to a part of the American coast which perpetually deceives the eye of the seaman, by inducing him to expect that head-land which he never finds.

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